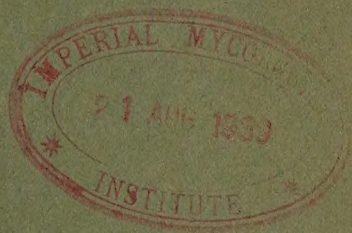
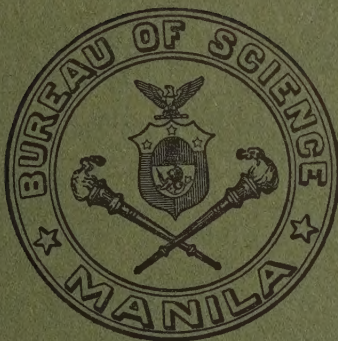


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NEUROPTEROID INSECTS FROM THE PHILIPPINES

By NATHAN BANKS

Of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, Cambridge

ONE PLATE

Prof. L. B. Uichanco, of the University of the Philippines, sent me a number of neuropteroids for determination. Many were collected by various students, and a considerable number by Professor Uichanco and by Dr. C. S. Banks; a few were from the late Prof. C. F. Baker. I have added descriptions of a few new species from the Baker and Clagg material that had not been studied. Much of the material I received from Professor Baker had no dates of capture, so I have given the records with dates from Professor Uichanco's material, in which nearly everything was dated, at least to the month.

EMBIIDÆ

OLIGOTOMA SAUNDERSI Westwood.

NEGROS, Occidental Negros, La Carlota Central, March, 1930 (*L. B. Uichanco*).

OLIGOTOMA MASI Navas.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, January 3, 1930 (*M. Plurad*), March 1, 1931 (*D. Tabije*), November 11, 1931 (*R. Base*).

PSOCIDÆ

PSOCUS BAKERI Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, January 21, 1935 (*G. A. Pangga*); Pili River, Mount Maquiling, altitude 80 meters,

February 19, 1924 (*D. Sulit*); Ilocos Norte, Paoay, December 28, 1931 (*F. Villanueva*).

PSOCUS OMISSUS sp. nov.

Similar to *P. lemniscatus*, apical marks similar, subbasal band wanting; only a black spot over basal part of radial sector, a black spot across anal cell near end; median cell only a little longer than broad, third median scarcely two and one-half times as long as broad, third median cell about as in *P. lemniscatus*; lower branch of radial sector separating from upper in a broad curve, which is here hyaline; lower end of median cell pale. Head, notum, and eyes as in *P. rizali*; hairs on male antennæ six to eight times the width of a joint.

MINDANAO, Mount Apo, Tia Ridge, altitude 6,000 feet, September (*Clagg*); Subulan River, October 11, altitude 2,000 feet (*Clagg*). Smaller specimens from Luzon (*Clagg*) and Samar (*Baker*). Two males lack the brown color in the third median cell. Type, M. C. Z. No. 22977.

PSOCUS RIZALI sp. nov.

In general similar to *P. lemniscatus* Enderlein, and formerly identified by me as that species. Differs from *lemniscatus* in having a nearly square median cell, in the much broader third median cell, and in a much more elongate second median cell. The subbasal band is broader than in *lemniscatus*, and there is a curved dark mark in the radial cell; both sexes marked the same. Head almost wholly pale, nasus bulging out in front; hairs of antennæ in female only a little longer than width of joint, in male fully four or five times as long; eyes of male not enlarged; notum shiny brown to nearly black, sutures scarcely marked with pale, subbasal band on hind margin reaching to base of wing (in *P. viscayana* broken long before base).

Lower branch of radial sector separating from upper in a broad curve, and here hyaline white; lower end of median cell also hyaline.

Length of forewing, female, 7 millimeters; male, 5.

Various specimens from Mount Maquiling, Luzon, and from Samar (21077), both collected by Baker. Type, M. C. Z. No. 22976.

PSOCUS ILLOTUS sp. nov.

Head dull gray, darker on clypeus and nasus; notum brown, sutures pale. Forewings with apical markings much as in *Psocus murudensis* Karny, but more extended. Stigma dark,

a spot behind angle of stigma extending across radial area and down on posterior side of areola postica to margin, two other spots in radial area, the one at tip pale in the middle, a spot at end of upper branch of radial sector, each of posterior cells margined along sides with dark, second cell with a band across a little below medius, also a spot at nodus and basal part of radial sector. Broad dark band over basal part of wing in *P. murudensis* wholly lacking in this species.

Wing rather slender, median cell much longer than broad, areola postica with a short top on medius (very long in *murudensis*), branches of radial sector separating in an acute angle. Hair on male antenna fully three to four times as long as width of a joint.

Length of forewing, 3.5 millimeters.

LUZON, Mountain Province, Benguet Subprovince, Baguio, July 10 (*McCoy*). Type, M. C. Z. No. 22978.

STENOPSOCUS JOCOSUS sp. nov.

Head pale, nasus and clypeus slightly brown in the middle, a black band from eye to eye through ocelli, antennæ (female) very pale, scarcely at all marked. Legs pale; notum with three large shiny black spots. Forewings with elongate stigma hyaline, an even broad black line along posterior margin of stigma, crossvein behind longer than width of stigma; lower side of median cell about twice as long as crossvein to medius, second branch of medius about parallel to posterior side of areola postica; separation of radial sector and medius hyaline for a short distance. Veins with few hairs, each about its length from next, hairs around outer margin few, very short, inconspicuous. Eyes (female) two diameters apart.

A male, which may belong here, has the eyes a little more than one diameter apart, the antennæ black, the stigma yellowish, and tips of femora and tibiæ dark.

Length of forewing, 4.2 millimeters.

From Basilan, and Zamboanga Province, Mindanao (*Baker*); male from Calian, Davao Province, Mindanao, July 11 (*Clagg*). Type, M. C. Z. No. 22979.

CÆCILIOUS MUGGENBERGI Enderlein.

Nathanopsocus fuscolineatus C. S. Banks is a synonym; accession No. 18338.

AMPHIPSOCUS UNITUS Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, June 17; December 26, 1925 (*S. S. Gonzales*).

TAGALOPSOCUS HYALINUS Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Mount Banahao (Kinabuhayan), May 21, 1933 (*V. J. Madrid*).

DYPSOCUS APICATUS Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, July 7, 1923 (*S. M. Cendaña*), June 2, 1918 (*C. S. Banks*).

HEMIPSOCUS ROSEUS Hagen.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, June 15, 1932 (*S. R. Capco*).

LOPHOPTERYGELLA CAMELINA Enderlein.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, September 27, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*); Laguna Province, Calauang, September 5, 1922 (*L. B. Uichanco*).

PERLIDÆ

NEOPERLA RECTA Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Mount Maquiling, August 28, 1925 (*H. Protacio*); Los Baños, November 20, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*), February 15, 1931 (*Isabelo Monje*), October 12, 1929 (*F. Villanueva*), August 25, 1923 (*J. R. Bogayong*), November 19, 1930 (*E. Cada*), August 4, 1929 (*V. Villafranca*), June 23, 1925 (*U. Villar*).

NEOPERLA PALLICORNIS Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, January 3, 1932 (*M. Plurad*), February 3, 1925 (*F. Goseco*).

NEOPERLA VISCAYANA Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, March 1, 1931 (*D. Tabije*).

NEOPERLA OBLIQUA Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, October 29, 1916 (*F. B. Padolina*), January 11, 1917 (*T. Nisce*), January 8, 1917 (*C. R. Paulinan*), January 16, 1917 (*C. S. Banks*), June 1, 1914 (*E. Ejercito*), August 6, 1923 (*E. M. Sibal*), August 23, 1931 (*G. B. Viado*), March 1, 1931 (*D. Tabije*), July 21, 1927 (*P. Ungos*).

PHANOPERLA CLARISSA Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, January 26 and 29, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*), February 10, 1932 (*M. Plurad*), June 15, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*), August 8, 1923 (*P. V. Maclang*), September 18, 1929 (*S. M. Cendaña*), February 20, 1917 (*G. D. Cazeñas*), August 5, 1923 (*G. Guanzon*).

MINDANAO, Dansalan, altitude 300 feet, April 27, 1936 (*L. B. Uichanco*).

PHANOPERLA CONSIMILIS Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, June 1, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*), August 5, 1923 (*G. Guanzon*).

PHANOPERLA BAKERI Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, July 17, 1927 (*P. H. Viray*).

NOTHOCHRYSIDÆ (CHRYSOPIDÆ)**NOBILENUS BELLULUS** Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, May 8, 1923 (*L. B. Uichanco*), July 10, 1923 (*F. S. Manipol*), December 26, 1930 (*M. Plurad*).

NOTHOCHRYSA EVANESCENS McLachlan.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, July 11, 1930 (*C. Bagalso*), August 25, 1929, entom. student, September 9, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*), October 30, 1930 (*E. Lantin and V. Juan*); Mount Maquiling, altitude 285 meters, August 21, 1932 (*V. Asuncion*).

NOTHOCHRYSA ÆQUALIS Walker.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, June 29, 1932 (*A. Y. Coronel*), July 9, 1922 (*S. Lantican*), July 9, 1927 (*H. T. Ramos*), October 15, 1928 (*E. A. Lanuza*).

ANKYLOPTERYX TRIPUNCTATA Girard.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, August 19, 1926 (*Mrs. I. R. Cendaña*).

ANKYLOPTERYX BORNEENSIS Weele.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, March, 1930 (*J. Abrenica*), December 23, 1930 (*E. Dumaguing*).

ANKYLOPTERYX NERVOSA Navas.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, July 8.

CHRYSOPA ISOLATA Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, April 22, 1930 (*G. B. Viado*), August 15, 1915 (*H. Cuzner*).

CHRYSOPA MOROTA Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, May 21, 1923 (*S. M. Cendaña*).

CHRYSOPA MAKILINGI Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, April 21, 1930 (*V. J. Madrid*), Tolim, May 3.

CHRYSOPA ILOTA Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, July 7, 1921 (*M. Jaramila*).

CHRYSOPA TAGALICA Banks.

LUZON, Mount Banahao, crater, April 24, 1936 (*V. J. Madrid*).

CHRYSOPA NIGRIBASIS Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, March 15, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*).

CHRYSOPA (BORNIA) LUZONICA sp. nov.

Head pale yellowish, with a slight tint of reddish on vertex, no dark on cheeks; palpi pale, unmarked; antennæ pale; pronotum also pale, in one specimen with a faint median reddish streak, and more faint back on mesonotum; abdomen and legs pale.

Wings hyaline; venation pale, gradates brown, some radial crossveins and a few veins toward base of wing faintly brownish. In hind wings veins wholly pale.

Antennæ about two-thirds length of forewings; pronotum longer than broad behind, somewhat tapering forward. Wings rather slender, tips almost acute. In forewings radial sector but little curved; three series of gradates, eight in first, four or five in intermediate, eight in outer row; divisory veinlet ending just beyond crossvein; seven cubitals beyond it; twelve radial crossveins. In hind wing six inner and eight outer gradates, inner row rather nearer to radial sector than to outer row.

Length of forewing, 14.5 millimeters; width, 5.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Mount Banahao, in crater, April 22; altitude 974 meters, April 21 (*V. J. Madrid and G. T. Lim*).

Types in the College of Agriculture, University of the Philippines Collection, and M. C. Z. No. 23333.

OSMYLIDÆ**SPILOSMYLUS MODESTUS** Gerstaecker.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, June 15, 1932 (*A. Y. Coronel*).

MICROMIDÆ (HEMEROBIIDÆ)**ARCHÆOMICROMUS PUSILLUS** Gerstaecker.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, July 10, 1923 (*C. Cruillo*), September 15, January 5. MINDANAO, Lanao Province, Dapao Lake, Ganassi, altitude 3,000 feet, April 28, 1936 (*L. B. Uichanco*).

ARCHÆOMICROMUS IGOROTUS Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, February 17, 1923 (*G. B. Ingalla*).

MYRMELEONIDÆ

MYRMELEON CELEBESENSIS McLachan.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, August 1, 1923 (*J. Barsana*), September 8, 1924 (*C. G. Manuel*), February 22, 1932 (*A. Palma*).

MYRMELEON ANGUSTIPENNIS Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, January 20, 1923 (*S. J. Aquino*), July 2, 1917 (*C. S. Banks*), July 4, 1923 (*L. Salazar*), November 1, 1931 (*M. Cera*), December 27, 1924 (*D. Suerte*).

HAGENOMYIA SAGAX Walker.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, July 24 1918 (*C. S. Banks*).

DISTOLEON CLEONICE Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, August, 1926 (*C. Sundarashtra*), July 24, 1932 (*A. Barroquillo*), June 2.

NUGLERUS INSIGNIS sp. nov.

Head pale, a brown line below and one above antennæ; vertex with a transverse brown mark on each side, narrowly connected in the middle; palpi pale; antennæ pale, tips a little darker. Pronotum pale, on posterior part lateral margins broadly brown, on anterior part, sides and front margin faintly dark; long black hairs in front and some behind groove, shorter, curved; paler hairs on sides; mesonotum with brown spots, usually connected; metanotum more brown, tip of metascutellum shiny dark brown; on mesonotum very long erect black hairs, mostly in two groups on each side. Legs pale, base and tips of tibiæ darker, front coxæ long, with a broad, oblique, brown mark on outer side; spurs slender, curved near tips, equal to two joints; basal tarsal joint a little longer than apical joint, claws fully one-half of last joint; pleura with a brown stripe. Wings shaped as in other species (*scalaris* and *maculata*), tip of forewing hardly as acute as in *maculata*; a large bulla near tip of each pair.

Forewing with apical bulla brown, a smaller brown cloud over rhexma, and one on hind margin at end of anal vein. Between subcosta and radius thirteen brown spots (as usual), between each pair two or three brown spots from subcosta, not reaching across; in mediocubital area nine crossveins before and fourteen beyond stigma, these crossveins brown and more or

less bordered with brown; venation brown, in cubital area and anal area more pale; subcosta, radius, and cubitus interrupted with pale; hairs on veins moderately long. On hind wing apical bulla dark brown, a faint mark over rhexia; venation mostly brownish, paler in middle of apical half behind. Venation much as in other species; costals toward stigma forked; eight radial sectors; four crossveins before radial sector in forewing, two in hind wing.

Length of forewing, 28 millimeters; hind wing, 30.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Mount Maquiling (*C. F. Baker*).
Type M. C. Z. No. 23020.

Readily separated from *scalaris* by more numerous marked veins in mediocubital area; from *maculata* (*Bofia*) separated by lack of middle dark spot near tip, by pale front (black in *maculata*), by single stripe on pleura (two parallel lines in *maculata*); femora pale above (with dark line in *maculata*).

The genus is peculiar in that there is no branch of the cubitus in the hind wing that can be identified as the cubital fork, the anal vein apparently continuing as a zigzag line; this post-cubital area extremely narrow, mostly 1-celled.

ASCALAPHIDÆ

SUBPALASCA PRINCEPS *Gerstaecker*.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Mount Maquiling, April 16, 1930
(*V. J. Madrid*), June 15, 1931 (*Emilio Ocampo*).

MANTISPIDÆ

EUCLIMACIA GUERINI *Westwood*.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, February 10, 1929 (*L. B. Uichanco*); Mount Maquiling, July 22, 1925 (*Entomology student*).

EUMANTISPA STRENUA *Gerstaecker*.

LUZON, Nueva Ecija Province, Bongabon, December 26, 1934
(*Angel Huertas*).

CLIMACIELLA LUZONICA *Weele*.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, August 6, 1923 (*E. M. Sibal*).

MANTISPA LUZONENSIS *Navas*.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, October 27, 1933 (*T. Araneta*); Mount Maquiling, altitude 92 meters, June 16, 1932
(*V. J. Madrid*).

MANTISPA ENDERLEINI *Banks*.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, June 11, 1917 (*C. S. Banks*), October 27, 1933 (*T. Araneta*).

AUSTROMANTISPA MANCA Gerstaecker.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, April 9, 1926 (*C. G. Manuel*), June 2, 1923 (*S. M. Cendaña*).

RHYACOPHILIDÆ**AGAPETUS CURVIDENS** Ulmer.

MINDORO, Mindoro Province, April 11 and 12, 1923 (*L. B. Uichanco*).

HYDROPSYCHIDÆ**VIGARRHA TIBIALIS** Navas.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, March 17, 1915, many specimens (*C. S. Banks*), August, 1927 (*L. B. Uichanco*). NEGROS, Occidental Negros Province, La Carlota Central, March, 1930 (*L. B. Uichanco*). MINDANAO, Surigao Province, April 20, 1936 (*L. B. Uichanco*).

DIPSEUDOPSIS BAKERI Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, very common, every month of year, February 25, 1924 (*A. Damian*), June 14, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*), July 12, 13, and 19, 1922 (*L. B. Uichanco*), July 15, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*), July 22, 1922 (*S. Pagcaliuag*), September 5, 1915 (*G. C. Zaballa*), September 30, 1915 (*J. Trinidad*), October 4, 1930 (*A. Siason*), October 8, 1931 (*M. Legaspi*), December 3, 1930 (*C. Valdez*).

DIPSEUDOPSIS NERVOSA Brauer.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, April 8, 1917 (*L. G. Mendoza*), July 2, 1923 (*G. B. Ingalla*), November 5, 1924 (*A. Muyargas*).

DIPSEUDOPSIS LUCTUOSA Banks.

MINDANAO, Agusan Province, Jabonga, Mayogda, April 21, 1936 (*L. B. Uichanco*). LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, August 24, 1915 (*F. W. Ashton*), November 14, 1924 (*M. Tadler*), December 16, 1923 (*E. Quisumbing*).

POLYPLECTROPUS ULMERI Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, March 17, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*), May 10, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*), June 28, 1922 (*L. B. Uichanco*).

DIPLECTRONA FASCIATA Ulmer.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, April 15, 1923 (*G. Lacuesta*).

DIPLECTRONA COSTALIS Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, March 17, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*), July 11, 1923 (*T. Reveche*).

CHEUMATOPSYCHE MASIA Navas.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, July 13, 1925 (*F. Reveche*), August 12, 1923 (*J. M. de Vera*), September 8, 1917 (*C. S. Banks*), September 20, 1925 (*G. C. Bermejo*), October 191— (no other data). NEGROS, Occidental Negros, La Carlota Central, March, 1930 (*L. B. Uichanco*).

ECNOMUS TAGALENSIS Banks.

This neuropteroid was described as a *Nyctophylax*, and *Ecnomus viganus* Navas is the same species. It is fairly common in Luzon. Superior appendages long, cylindrical, subparallel, with stout, short bristles on inner side; inferior appendages a little more than one-half as long as superior, broadened toward base, toward tip incurved and pointed.

Ulmer has based an identification of a different species on a drawing sent to Navas. But Navas in his original description says that the superior appendages are long, cylindrical (while the figure of Ulmer does not show such an appendage), that the inferior appendages are also elongate, dilated near the base, and toward tip plainly attenuate and clawlike (Ulmer's figure shows a short, broad appendage, broad at tip, not at all attenuate).

I propose for the species Ulmer called *E. viganus* the name *Ecnomus morotus*. Mindanao.

ECNOMUS RIZALI Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, May 21, 1923 (*S. M. Cendaña*.)

POLYMORPHANISUS SEMPERI Brauer.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Mount Maquiling, altitude 600 meters, April 19, 1937 (*V. J. Madrid*); Los Baños, October 30, 191— (*G. D. Cazenias*).

GUNUNGIELLA MARGINALIS sp. nov.

Hair on head and thorax gray; antennæ pale, darker toward tip, more or less annulate with dark; legs and spurs pale. Forewings in appearance whitish through middle, margined with deep black fringe along costa and outer border, behind with gray fringe. Middle of wing with fine yellowish and black hair, just before outer margin a band of golden hair, and a black fringe around outer margin, elsewhere gray. Head with large, high, posterior warts, ocelli and palpi as in other species. Wings slenderer than in *G. reducta* or *G. nietneri*; thus lower side of fork five hardly one-fourth as long as upper side; in hind wings noticeably more slender and more pointed; fork five larger, fork two longer.

Length of forewing, 4 millimeters.

MINDANAO, Davao Province, Mount Mayo, January 26, 1929, 4,000 to 5,000 feet (C. S. Clagg).

Type, M. C. Z. No. 23195.

PSYCHOMYIELLA ULMERI sp. nov.

Head with pale grayish hair, basal joint of antennæ dark, beyond pale, faintly annulate with dark, antenna from middle to tip dark. Front of thorax with pale-gray hair; legs and spurs pale; abdomen dark. Forewings gray, with black and golden hair, fringe near tip of wing very dark, veins here almost black, fringe behind pale, on costa almost black; hind wings gray, with long gray fringe, that on apical half of costa also long and more yellowish. Venation much as in other species; fork three slenderer, fork four very large, fork five plainly shorter than four, lower side not one-half as long as upper side. Hind wings much as in *P. minima*, very slender, apical half (beyond projection) more than twice as long as width at projection; upper side of fork five fully three times as long as lower. In female tip of ovipositor forked; in male lower appendages long, nearly straight.

Length of forewing, 4.2 to 4.5 millimeters.

MINDANAO, Galog River, Mount Apo, altitude 6,000 feet, October 8 and 19, November 4 and 5; Mainit River, altitude 6,000 feet, September 22 and 23, 1929. All collected by C. S. Clagg. Type, M. C. Z. No. 23194.

PADUNIELLA ANGUSTA sp. nov.

Head and thorax with gray hair, some black on sides, antennæ pale, faintly annulate with dark; legs pale, spurs pale; abdomen black. Forewings gray, with some dark and much golden hair, rather darker towards tip; fringe very long, gray, but toward tip nearly black; hind wings pale gray, with very long gray fringes. Forewings rather more slender than in *semarangensis* or *borneensis*; fork three shorter, discal cell shorter. In hind wing base fairly broad, two clear areas broader than in other species, and I cannot find any vein parallel to the base of fork five, but this vein is rather heavy. In the clear costal space a spur vein, much as in *P. africana*. Male appendages yellowish, two long, slender, slightly curved lower pieces, above with a rather broad superior plate, between a pair of slender pieces swollen toward tips; from above projects below a broad, recurved, pointed process.

Length of forewing, female 2.8 millimeters; male, 2.6.

MINDORO, Mindoro Province, San Jose, April 11, 1923 (*L. B. Uichanco*). Type, M. C. Z. No. 23196; paratypes in the College of Agriculture, University of the Philippines.

CALAMOCERATIDÆ

ANISOCENTROPUS MAGNIFICUS Ulmer.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, February 26, 1931 (*Gironello*), May 10, 1926 (*S. C. Cendaña*), August 5, 1915 (*L. B. Uichanco*). BASILAN, May 6, 1936 (*Uichanco*).

LEPTOCERIDÆ

NOTANATOLICA GILOENSIS McLachlan.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, many specimens, in every month of the year, but few in August and December, February 10, 1931 (*A. Costes*), April 23, 1928 (*L. B. Uichanco*), June 18 and 23, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*), July 20, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*), July 30, 1922 (*P. Masibay*), August 24, 1915 (*F. W. Ashton*), September 22, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*), October 25, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*), November 14, 1930 (*P. Elayda and R. Denoga*), February 24 (*C. T. Buligan*).

NOTANATOLICA GRISEA Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, January 1, 1915 (*J. P. Esguerra*), March 1, 1931 (*D. Tabije*), July 20, 1922 (*A. Gordon*), September 2, 1928 (*A. Severino*), December 16, 1925 (*L. B. Uichanco*).

ÆCETIS APICIPENNIS Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, August 15, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*), September 6, 23, and 27, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*).

SETODES SPINOSELLA Ulmer.

NEGROS, Occidental Negros Province, La Carlota Central, March, 1930 (*L. B. Uichanco*).

ÆCETINELLA CONFLUENS Ulmer.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, October 25, 1922 (*L. B. Uichanco*).

SERICOSTOMATIDÆ

GÆRA LONGISPINA Ulmer.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, December 15, October 17, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*).

GÆRA TAGALICA Banks.

LUZON, Laguna Province, Los Baños, September 20, June 29, 1915 (*C. S. Banks*).

ILLUSTRATION

PLATE 1

- FIG. 1. *Psocus rizali* sp. nov.; forewing.
2. *Psocus illotus* sp. nov.; forewing.
3. *Paduniella angusta* sp. nov.; male genitalia, side.
4. *Gunungiella marginalis* sp. nov.; hind wing.
5. *Paduniella angusta* sp. nov.; fore and hind wings.
6. *Paduniella angusta* sp. nov.; male genitalia, below.
7. *Ecnomus tagalensis* sp. nov.; male genitalia, above and below.
8. *Psychomyiella ulmeri* sp. nov.; hind wing and part of forewing.
9. *Stenopsocus jocosus* sp. nov.; forewing.
10. *Psychomyiella ulmeri* sp. nov.; male genitalia, side.

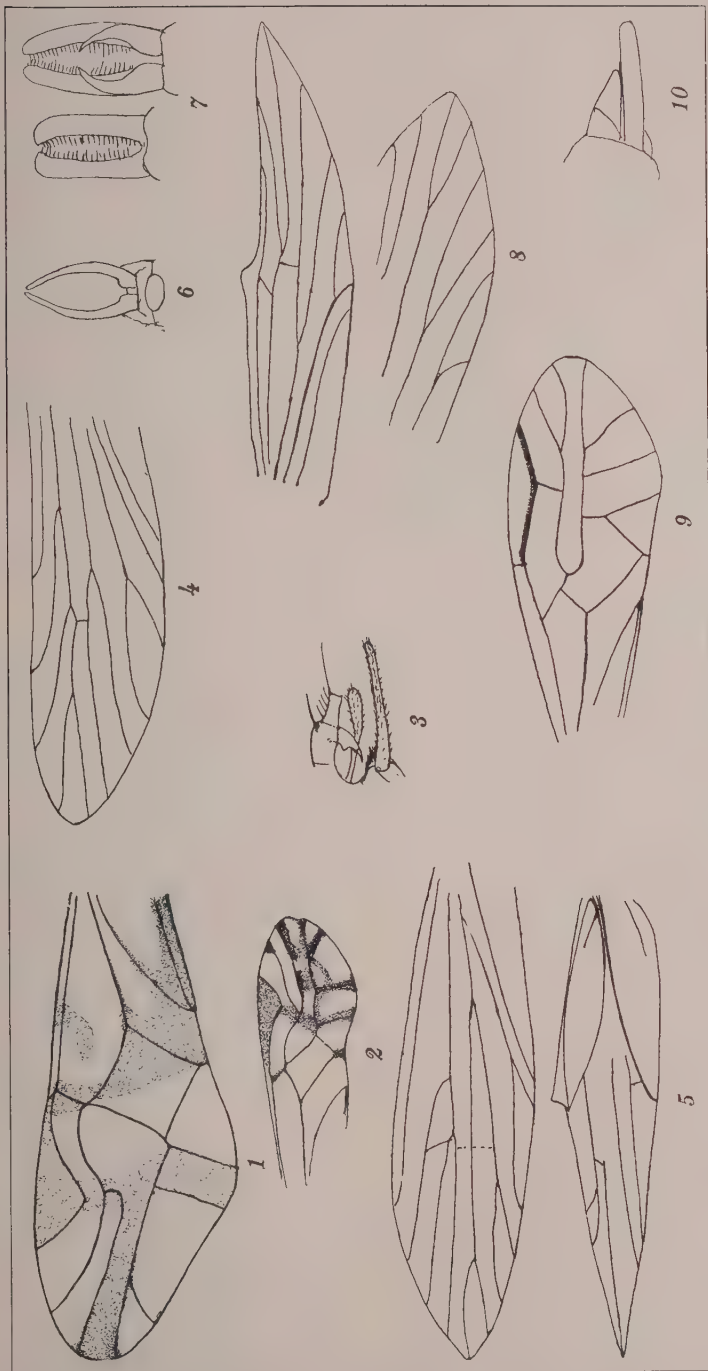


PLATE 1.

A CONTRIBUTION TO OUR KNOWLEDGE OF *GORPIS* STÅL (HEMIPTERA: NABIDÆ)

By H. M. HARRIS
Of Ames, Iowa

ONE TEXT FIGURE

In a former paper¹ I pointed out some of the difficulties one meets in attempting to identify specimens of the genus *Gorpis* Stål, and presented a catalogue of the species. Through the kindness of the authorities of the British Museum of Natural History, and especially of Mr. W. E. China, it now becomes possible to make a further contribution to our knowledge of the group.

GORPIS LONGISPINIS sp. nov.

Pale, yellowish testaceous tending toward orange; basal two antennal segments, femora toward apex, and tibiæ toward base flecked or tinged with orange-red; disc of hind lobe of pronotum, scutellum, and median longitudinal stripe to tip of hemelytra darker; humeral spines piceous black above. Head, measured to collum, one-half longer than broad (30:21), length of antocular part measured to apex of antenniferous tubercule slightly greater than width of eye; vertex wide (10). Eye proportions, length : width : depth, 9 : 5.5 : 8. Antennal formula 62 : 80 : 77 : 33; segment I stout, thickly clothed with long, rather coarse, obliquely rising hairs whose length is about three times diameter of segment, segment II with equally numerous but distinctly shorter hairs. Rostral formula, 27:24:12. Pronotum longer than broad (49:41); collar long (5), indistinctly but coarsely punctate; front lobe small, as long as broad (19); hind lobe prominently raised above front lobe, sharply expanded laterally, very thickly, coarsely punctate, humeri armed with a long tapering horn which projects obliquely outward and upward. Scutellum small, slightly broader than long (15:14), not noticeably produced at apex. Hemelytra narrow, extending beyond apex of abdomen, claval commissure short (25). Ante-

¹ Philip. Journ. Sci. 43 (1930) 415.

rior legs as seen from side rather slender, coxa about three times as long as thick (34:11), femur nearly ten times as long as deep (96:10). Male clasper as in text fig. 1, *e*.

Length, 11.8 millimeters; width, 1.81.

Holotype, male, India, United Provinces, Naini Tal, 6,400 feet, April 7, 1934 (*J. A. Graham*); in the collection of the British Museum of Natural History.

This form seems nearest *acutispinis* Reuter and *humeralis* (Distant), and belongs to the same section of the genus. From Reuter's description of the former it differs in color, in that

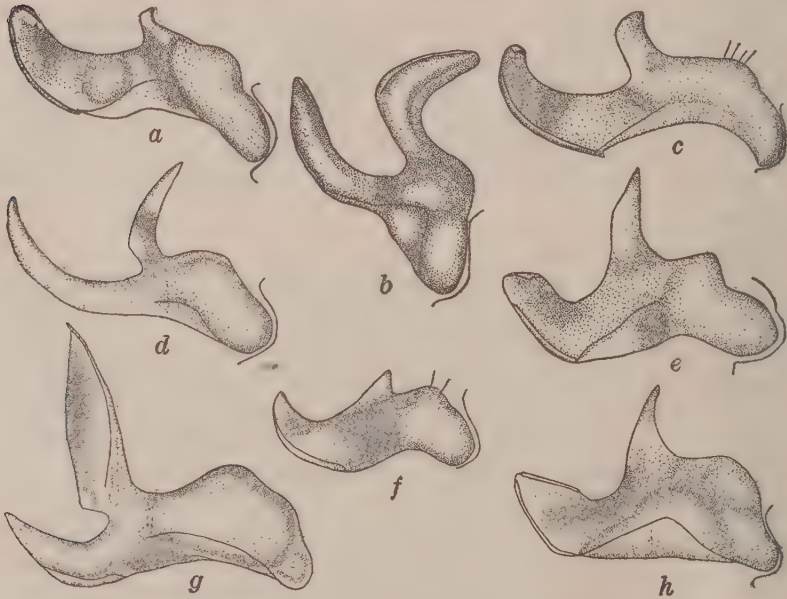


FIG. 1. Left clasper of males of various species of *Gorpis*. *a*, *Gorpis papuanus* sp. nov.; *b*, *G. clavatus* sp. nov.; *c*, *G. similimus* sp. nov.; *d*, *G. chinai* sp. nov.; *e*, *G. longispinus* sp. nov.; *f*, *G. neglectus* sp. nov.; *g*, *G. transvaalensis* Schouteden; *h*, *G. rufinervis* Poppius.

antennal segment I is equal in length to pronotum and scutellum combined, the pronotum is distinctly longer than broad, and the fore femur is distinctly longer than pronotum and clavus taken together. It agrees with Distant's description and figure of *humeralis* in the proportional length of antennal segment I and in the nature of the antennal clothing, but differs in that the humeral spines are much longer and sharper; there is no evidence of a transverse fascia on the hemelytra, and the front coxae are longer and their acetabula more inflated.

GORPIS TRANSVAALENSIS Schouteden.

Gorpis transvaalensis SCHOUTEDEN, Rev. Zool. Afr. 6 (1919) 241.

Head longer than broad (male, 31:20), vertex broad (10). Eyes small, length distinctly less than width of vertex, 8:5:7. Antennæ long, segment I relatively thin along basal third, then rather suddenly and noticeably thickened, clothed with a few moderately long pale hairs, 44:52:58:29. Pronotum as long as broad (41:41), anterior lobe distinctly margined laterally, its disc with cicatrices shiny, darkened, and quite conspicuous; posterior lobe barely raised above anterior, very thickly coarsely punctate, punctures very irregular in size, base deeply emarginate in front of scutellum, margin of the prolonged part on each side of scutellum slightly reflexed. Scutellum as broad as long. Costal margin of hemelytra strongly sinuate. Front coxæ relatively short and stout, less than three times as long as thick (28:11). Anterior femur only about six times as long as deep (78:13). Abdomen strongly widened at middle, connexivum prominently maculate. Male clasper as in text fig. 1, g.

SOUTH AFRICA, East Cape Province, Kathberg, 4,000 feet, 8 specimens, October, 1932 (*R. E. Turner*); Natal, Malvern, 1 specimen, May 26, 1897 (no collector); Durban, 1 specimen, 1897 (no collector); 1 specimen, 1903 (*W. H. Bell Marley*); Karkloof, 4 specimens, no date (no collector).

These specimens agree in most details with Reuter's description of *G. apicalis* from Kilimandjaro. They have a large basal spot on the outside of the anterior femora, unmentioned in Schouteden's description and no doubt comparable to the third ring on the femur of Reuter's species. In three of the individuals (teneral) from Karkloof this basal spot is not noticeable, and in all the specimens the middle ring is incomplete above.

GORPIS CHINAI sp. nov.

Pale flavous, conspicuously marked with reddish brown to dark brown. Head irregularly brown above and beneath, with an interrupted irregular stripe on each side above, a spot on middle of clypeus, and a narrow interrupted stripe on each side below, pale; gula darkest. Narrow base of second antennal segment (ring joint) brown, and a conspicuous ring at its tip black. Pronotum variegated, sides of front lobe and margins behind humeri darkest; front lobe mostly brown, with an oblique pale spot on each side in front of transverse impression (this

pale area at times occupies most of the disc so that only sides and median stripe of front lobe are darker); posterior lobe with a triangular patch on each side of median line, lateral edges and a narrow oblique line on each side of disc darker. Scutellum brown, a spot on each side and median line usually distinctly paler, apex reddish.

Hemelytra with clavus and a characteristic pattern on corium and base of membrane brown, remainder pale, hyaline. Legs pale, front femur with a broad brown ring in front of distal two-fifths; an elongate postmedian spot and a narrow subapical, incomplete ring on hind femur and a basal ring on hind tibia, brown. Mesosternum and mesopleura largely embrowned with irregular pale areas. Metasternum and abdomen immaculate.

Head longer than broad (male, 22:17), vertex wide (8). Eyes small, 7:4:8. Antennal proportions, 40:44:35:24; segment I with few pale hairs, noticeably enlarged along distal third. Rostral formula, 22:20:12. Pronotum distinctly shorter than broad (34:40), anterior lobe narrow, together with collar as long as posterior measured at midline; hind lobe raised above anterior, thickly punctate, its hind margin broadly concave, slightly reflexed on each side. Scutellum, small, not longer than broad. Hemelytra constricted before middle, then strongly widened, pale area of corium minutely punctulate, membrane extending well beyond apex of abdomen. Front coxa barely more than three times as long as broad (28:9), front femur about five times as long as deep (60:12). Male clasper as in text fig. 1, *d*.

Length, 7.6 to 7.9 millimeters; width, 1.86.

Holotype, male, and allotype, female, Malvern, Natal, South Africa, July, 1897, in the collection of the British Museum of Natural History. Paratypes, 1 male and 1 female, taken with type; 1 male, Durban, Natal, 1897; 1 female, Hilton, November, 1897.

GORPIS SIMILLIMUS *sp. nov.*

Pale yellowish white; eyes, ocelli, and ring toward apex of hind femur reddish, tips of first two antennal segments, apical half of segment III, tip of rostrum, apices of tibiae and tarsi, spot at apex of claval commissure, streak along lateral margins of front lobe of pronotum, an indistinct spot at distal third of front femur on its posterior (exterior) side, and three small irregular spots exteriorly on front femur proximal to its middle, embrowned to testaceous. Head longer than broad (25:20),

vertex (10) flatter than in *clavatus*. Eyes more oval than in *clavatus*, 9:5:8. Antennæ long, segment I of equal thickness throughout, with a few fine short hairs, 51:70:78; segment IV absent. Rostrum stout, with only a few, very fine, short hairs; formula, 30:25:12.

Pronotum barely longer than broad (38:37), not noticeably pilose, collar long, indistinctly punctate, anterior lobe suddenly raised above collar, arched; median constriction deep, posterior lobe strongly raised above anterior, thickly, rather finely and regularly punctate, punctures rounded; base feebly emarginate. Scutellum moderate, faintly longer than broad, tip pointed. Hemelytra subhyaline, almost parallel-sided, margins with only a few fine hairs. Anterior coxæ elongate, over five times as long as thick (42:8). Front femur as long as head, pronotum and scutellum (except tip) conjoined, nearly seven times as long as deep (89:13). Abdomen elongate, not expanded distally. Male clasper as in text fig. 1, c.

Length, 9.5 millimeters; width, 1.75.

Holotype, male, New Hebrides; Malekula, January, 1930 (*L. Evelyn Cheesman*); in the collection of the British Museum of Natural History.

This species seems nearest *G. flavicans* Harris from Luzon.

GORPIS CLAVATUS sp. nov.

Pale yellowish white; ocelli and eyes reddish, base of antennal segment II (ring joint), tip of rostrum, and tip of tarsi fuscous. A streak on each side of base of head, a short line to each side of center of disc of scutellum, margin of clavus along basal half of commissure, a streak along apical part of claval suture and margin of membrane (forming an X when hemelytra are at rest), a small spot on membrane before apex of corium, two spots on each side of anterior femur (the one at basal fourth indistinct, the other beyond the middle), and an indistinct spot before apex of hind femur, testaceous or embrowned; an apical ring on antennal segment II piceous. Head (measured to collum) longer than broad (male, 26:18). Vertex (8) arched. Eyes small, 8:5:3. Antennæ with few hairs, segment I distinctly enlarged along apical two-fifths; 40:45:56:32. Rostral formula, 25:20:13.

Pronotum not longer than broad (39:38), its sides and propleura conspicuously clothed with long pale hairs; collar long, punctate; posterior lobe coarsely rugosely punctate, punctures elongate; base only feebly sinuate. Scutellum small, as

broad as long, tip short, fine, slightly recurved. Hemelytra shiny, hyaline, constricted on basal third, then strongly expanded; costal margin noticeably ciliate; membrane strongly surpassing tip of abdomen. Fore coxæ only about three times as long as thick (27:9). Fore femur stout, about six times as long as deep (66:11), its length equal to head and pronotum conjoined. Abdomen slightly expanded distally. Male clasper as in text fig. 1, *b*.

Length, 9.2 millimeters; width, 1.7; hemelytra, 2.1.

Holotype, male, and allotype, female, South Africa, Malvern, June 17, 1897, in the collection of the British Museum of Natural History. Paratype, 1 male, taken with types.

GORPIS RUFINERVIS Poppius.

Gorpis rufinervis POPPIUS, Ann. Mus. Zool. Acad. Sci. 19 (1914) 138.

Head longer than broad (32:21); vertex broad (9). Eye, 11:6:9. Antennæ stout; segment I thinner on basal fourth, conspicuously clothed with stout, dark hairs, 55:70:71:27. Rostrum with stout, almost erect dark hairs on basal half; formula, 25:21:13. Pronotum longer than broad (53:48), punctures of hind lobe quite coarse and tending to be elongate, shoulders tumid, basal margin faintly sinuate. Scutellum injured but apparently not noticeably longer than broad. Hemelytra only faintly widened posteriorly, membrane extending well beyond apex of abdomen. Fore coxæ stout, only about three times as long as thick (32:10). Front femur nearly eight times as long as deep (92:12), slightly longer than head and pronotum conjoined. Clasper as in text fig. 1, *h*.

Length, 13.2 millimeters (11.7 to apex of venter); width, 2.2 (2.6 across hemelytra).

SOUTH AFRICA, Pinesoun (?), May, 1917, Marley; Natal, Kloof, 1,500 feet, 1 male, August, 1926, no collector.

These individuals are mutilated and somewhat teneral, and show only faint evidence of the dark hemelytral markings described by Poppius. They agree with the description in all other respects, however, and thus are tentatively referred to *rufinervis*. They are larger and noticeably stouter than a specimen of *G. cribraticollis* from Ceylon in my collection, and have much stouter antennæ and fore coxæ. The eyes are less sharply rounded exteriorly, and the pronotum is longer and broader and is inflated within the humeral angles.

GORPIS SORDIDUS Reuter.

Gorpis sordida REUTER, Ann. Ent. Soc. Belg. 52 (1909) 428.

Gorpis sordidus HARRIS, Philip. Journ. Sci. 43 (1930) 419, fig. 1, c.

PAPUA, Mafulu, 4,000 feet, 4 specimens, January, 1934 (*L. Evelyn Cheesman*); Oquali, 4,500 feet, July, 1933; Mondo, 5,000 feet, January, 1934. These specimens are of especial interest because Reuter's types were from New Guinea. The clasper of the male appears to differ slightly from that of a specimen in my collection from Los Baños, Luzon.

GORPIS PAPUANUS sp. nov.

Color and pattern as in the very closely allied *G. sordidus* Reuter, but recognizable by its larger size, larger eyes, longer antennæ and legs, and slightly differently formed male clasper.

Head (measured to collum) longer than broad (male, 27:24), interocular distance (9) slightly greater than length of an eye, anteocular part not as porrect and swollen as in *longispinis*. Eye, length: width: depth, 10:7.5:10.5. Antennæ very long; segment I of equal diameter throughout its length, clothed with a few fine, short hairs; segments, 72:103:130:32. Rostral formula, 35:37:15. Pronotum as long as broad (40:40), front lobe smooth, somewhat arched, sharply raised above collar; hind lobe thickly, moderately finely, punctate, slightly impressed on each side next to humeri, base broadly, shallowly concave. Scutellum obviously longer than broad, apex slightly produced and swollen. Hemelytra opaque, only feebly expanded beyond apex of clavus; membrane, except along base, hyaline; extending well beyond tip of abdomen. Anterior coxa about seven times as long as thick (58:8) and almost as long as pronotum and scutellum conjoined. Anterior femur about eight times as long as thick (105:13), swollen below and slightly concave above, its tibia distinctly bowed, its tarsus very long. Tergum with segments margined with crimson. Male clasper as in text fig. 1, a.

Length, male, 10.7 millimeters, female, 11.8; width, 1.8 to 2.1.

Holotype, male, and allotype, female, Kokoda, Papua, 1,200 feet, August, 1933 (*L. Evelyn Cheesman*); in the collection of the British Museum of Natural History. Paratypes, 1 male and 2 females, taken by Miss Cheesman at the type locality in April; 2 males, taken in May; 2 males and 2 females, taken in June; 2 females, taken in September; 1 female, collected at Ishurova, 3,000 feet, July, 1933.

Because of its very apparent kinship with *G. sordidus*, which occurs on the same island but apparently at higher altitudes, this form should be of interest to students of distribution in its relation to speciation.

GORPIS NEGLECTUS sp. nov.

Pale yellowish white, eyes, ocelli, apical ring on hind tibia, and two spots on each side of anterior femora reddish to crimson. Head longer than broad (24 : 20), vertex about as in *simillimus*. Eyes smaller than in *simillimus*, 8 : 5.5 : 8. Antennæ with segment I of about equal thickness throughout its length, with sparse, short, fine hairs; proportions of segments, 46 : 62 : 73 : 35. Rostrum stout, 25 : 20 : 12. Pronotum (37 : 37) about as in *simillimus*; hemelytra slightly broader and with more nearly parallel sides, claval commissure shorter, its length equal to distance across eyes. Anterior coxæ only about four times as long as thick (35 : 9). Front femur about six times as long as deep (75 : 12), with irregular crimson areas at middle and apical fifth. Male clasper as in text fig. 1, f.

Holotype, male, Australia, Lordsborough (*H. Hacker*), March 31, 1934; in my collection.

In many respects this form seems nearest *Gorpis simillimus* and *G. philippinensis* Harris. It may be readily recognized from these, however, by the characters pointed out above as well as by the distinctive clasper of the male.

GORPIS BREVILINEATUS (Scott).

Nabis brevilineatus SCOTT, Ann. & Mag. Nat. Hist. (4) 14 (1874) 445.

Gorpis suzukii MATSUMURA, Thousand Insects Japan Addit. 1 (1913) 179.

Gorpis suzukii FUKUI, Kontyu (2) 2 (1927) 85, pl. 5, fig. 29.

Nabis brevilineatus FUKUI, Kontyu (2) 2 (1927) 87.

Gorpis brevilineatus ESAKI, Kontyu 3 (1929) 224.

Professor Esaki has pointed out that the insect called *Gorpis suzukii* by Matsumura is identical with Scott's *Nabis brevilineatus* from Japan. The Matsumura citation did not appear in the various abstracted journals until a late date, and the species was thus unfortunately omitted from my catalogue of *Gorpis*.²

² Loc. cit.

ILLUSTRATION

TEXT FIGURE

Fig. 1. Left clasper of males of various species of *Gorpiis*. *a*, *Gorpiis papuanus* sp. nov.; *b*, *G. clavatus* sp. nov.; *c*, *G. simillimus* sp. nov.; *d*, *G. chinai* sp. nov.; *e*, *G. longispinus* sp. nov.; *f*, *G. neglectus* sp. nov.; *g*, *G. transvaalensis* Schouteden; *h*, *G. rufinervis* Poppius.

HELOTIDÆ OF JAPAN, KOREA, AND FORMOSA
(COLEOPTERA)

By HIROMICHI KÔNO

Of the Entomological Institute, Hokkaido Imperial University
Sapporo, Japan

The family Helotidæ is represented by only one genus, *Helota* MacLeay.

Genus HELOTA MacLeay

Helota MACLEAY, Annul. Jav. (1825) 42.

Neohelota OHTA, Ins. Mats. 4 (1929) 68. (n. syn.)

After examining the types of *Neohelota tsumaaka* Ohta, *Neohelota miwai* Ohta, and *Helota sonani* Ohta, all of which are preserved in the Entomological Institute of Hokkaido Imperial University, I am convinced that *Neohelota tsumaaka*, the genotype of genus *Neohelota* Ohta, is the male of *Helota helleri* Ritsema, and *Neohelota miwai* is the male of *Helota sonani* Ohta. Furthermore, the type of *Helota sonani*, which Ohta designated as the male, is in reality the female of the species. Consequently I am of the opinion that *Neohelota* Ohta should be regarded as a synonym of *Helota* MacLeay, because the characters given for the former are merely sexual ones of less than generic value.

1. HELOTA THORACICA Ritsema.

Helota thoracica RITSEMA, Notes Leyd. Mus. 18 (1896) 49; 34 (1912) 51; MIWA, Syst. Cat. Formosan Col. (1931) 60.

Helota fex Ritsema ab. *mushana* OHTA, Inst. Mats. 3 (1929) 108, 109; MIWA, Syst. Cat. Formosan Col. (1931) 59. (syn. nov.)

Helota sp. KATO, Bunrui Genshoku Nippon Konchu Zukan 9 (1833) pl. 6, fig. 6.

Distribution.—Formosa; Tibet.

2. HELOTA OBERTHÜRI Ritsema.

Helota Oberthüri RITSEMA, Notes Leyd. Mus. 11 (1889) 110; KATO, Bunrui Genshoku Nippon Konchu Zukan 9 (1933) pl. 6, fig. 5.

Helota oberthüri MIWA, Syst. Cat. Formosan Col. (1931) 60.

Distribution.—Formosa (after Miwa); India.

3. HELOTA GEMMATA Gorham.

Helota gemmata GORHAM, Trans. Ent. Soc. Lond. (1874) 448 (pars); REITTER, Verh. Naturf. Ver. Brünn 16 (1876) 65, pl. 1, figs. 1-5;

HAROLD, Abhandl. Naturf. Ver. Bremen 5 (1876) 119; LEWIS, Col. Cat. Jap. Archip. (1879) 11; WATERHOUSE, Aid Ident. Ins. (1882) pl. 133, fig. 2; OLIFF, Cist. Ent. 3 (1883) 52, pl. 3, fig. 8; SCHÖNFELDT, Cat. Col. Jap. (1887) 94; RITSEMA, Notes Leyd. Mus. 11 (1889) 104; Ann. Mus. Civ. Genova 30 (1891) 888; LEWIS, Entomologist 26 (1893) 150; RITSEMA, Entomologist 26 (1893) 183; Junk Col. Cat. 34 Helotidae (1911) 105; MATSUMURA, Thous. Ins. Jap. 3 (1905) 51, pl. 43, fig. 3; Konchu Bunruigaku 2 (1905) 184; JACOBSON, Käfer Russ. West-Eur. (1905-1913) 900; WINKLER, Cat. Col. reg. pal. 6 (1926) 714; OHTA, Ins. Mats. 3 (1929) 110; YOKOYAMA, Nippon no Kochu (1930) 116, pl. 15, fig. 2; MATSUMURA, 6000 Ill. Ins. Jap. (1931) 141, fig. 202; Ill. Comm. Ins. Jap. 3 (1931) 32, pl. 8, fig. 11; YUASA, Nippon Konchu Zukan (1932) 711, fig. 1395; KAMIYA and ADACHI, Genshoku Kochu Zufu (1933) pl. 16, fig. 3; KATO, Genshoku Nippon Konchu Zukan 9 (1933) pl. 6, fig. 8.

Distribution.—Japan, Hokkaido, Honshu, Shikoku, Kiushu.

4. *HELOTA FULVIVENTRIS* Kolbe.

Helota fulviventris KOLBE, Arch. f. Naturg. 52 (1886) 182, pl. 11, fig. 25; RITSEMA, Notes Leyd. Mus. 11 (1889) 104; LEWIS, Entomologist 16 (1893) 183; JACOBSON, Käf. Russ. West-Eur. (1905-1913) 900, pl. 24, fig. 24; RITSEMA, Junk Col. Cat. 34 Helotidae (1911) 105; WINKLER, Cat. Col. reg. pal. 6 (1926) 714; OHTA, Ins. Mats. 3 (1929) 108, 109; MATSUMURA, 6000 Ill. Ins. Jap. (1931) 141, fig. 201; Ill. Comm. Ins. Jap. 3 (1931) 33, pl. 8, fig. 15.

Helota japonica OHTA, Ins. Mats. 3 (1929) 108, 109; MATSUMURA, 6000 Ill. Ins. Jap. (1931) 141, fig. 203. (*n. syn.*)

Helota fulviventris ab. *awana* OHTA, Ins. Mats. 3 (1929) 108, 109.

Distribution.—Japan, Honshu, Shikoku, Kiushu; Korea; Amur.

5. *HELOTA GORHAMII* Oht.

Helota Gorhami OLIFF, Cist. Ent. 3 (1883) 53, 56; KOLBE, Arch. f. Naturg. 52 (1886) 181; RITSEMA, Notes Leyd. Mus. 11 (1889) 192; Junk Col. Cat. 34 Helotidae (1911) 105; JACOBSON, Käf. Russ. West-Eur. (1905-1913) 900; WINKLER, Cat. Col. reg. pal. 6 (1926) 714.

Helota gorhami OHTA, Ins. Mats. 3 (1929) 108, 109.

Distribution.—Korea; China.

6. *HELOTA SINENSIS* Oht.

Helota sinensis OLIFF, Cist. Ent. 3 (1883) 54, pl. 3, fig. 3; MIWA, Syst. Cat. Formosan Col. (1931) 60.

Distribution.—Formosa (after Miwa); China.

7. *HELOTA YEZOANA* sp. nov.

Helota cereopunctata OHTA, Ins. Mats. 3 (1929) 108 (*pars*); MATSUMURA, 6000 Ill. Ins. Jap. (1931) 141, fig. 200.

Upper surface of body dark bronze, somewhat coppery shiny; four elytral spots yellow. Antennæ testaceous, slightly infuscated toward base. Under surface mostly reddish testaceous, head (except throat) and elytral epipleuræ metallic green, lateral portions of meso- and metasterna pitchy brown. Femora at apical third and tibiæ metallic green; tarsi and claws pitchy brown.

Head strongly and rather densely punctured. Prothorax trapezoidal, widest at base; lateral edges distinctly crenulate; base bisinuate, hind angles acute; anterior angles somewhat produced and rounded; upper surface at sides strongly and densely punctured, with some scattered punctures near middle, except impunctate longitudinal central portion. Scutellum small, transverse, impunctate. Elytra nearly parallel, rounded posteriorly, each with ten regular, punctured striæ; interstices impunctate, 1st, 2d, 6th, and 8th interstices costate on apical portion; anterior yellow spot occupying interstices of 4th, 5th, and 6th striæ; posterior yellow spot placed between 3d and 6th striæ. Underside of head (with exception of impunctate throat) and lateral portions of thorax distinctly punctured. Legs on metallic portions distinctly punctured. Anterior tibiæ strongly curved, shallowly furrowed along under side. Abdomen smooth, finely punctured; last ventral segment subtruncate at apex and provided with a tomentose impression.

Length, 7.5 millimeters.

Holotype, female, Jozankei, Hokkaido, June 2, 1935, *H. Kôno*.

Paratype, male, Jozankei, Hokkaido, September, 1908, *S. Matsumura*.

This species resembles *Helota cereopunctata* Lewis, from which it differs in the slenderer body and in the reddish testaceous lateral portions of the prothorax.

8. *HELOTA CEREOPUNCTATA* Lewis.

Helota cereo-punctata LEWIS, Ent. Month. Mag. 17 (1881) 225; RITSEMA, Junk Col. Cat. 34 Helotidae (1911) 104.

Helota cereopunctata RITSEMA, Entomologist 26 (1893) 183; JACOBSON, Käf. Russ. West-Eur. (1905-1913) 900; WINKLER, Cat. Col. reg. pal. 6 (1926) 714.

Distribution.—Honshu (after Lewis).

9. *HELOTA TAIWANA* Ohta.

Helota taiwana OHTA, Ins. Mats. 4 (1929) 66; MIWA, Syst. Cat. Formosan Col. (1931) 60.

Neohelota pusilla KATO (*nec* Oberthür, Bunrui Genshoku Nippon Konchu Zukai 9 (1933) pl. 6, fig. 1, 2. (syn. nov.)

Distribution.—Formosa.

10. *HELOTA HELLERI* Ritsema.

Helota helleri RITSEMA, Notes Leyd. Mus. 34 (1912) 51.

Helota helleri OHTA, Ins. Mats. 3 (1929) 108, 109; MIWA, Syst. Cat. Formosan Col. (1931) 59.

Neohelota tsumaaka OHTA, Ins. Mats. 4 (1929) 66, 68; MATSUMURA, 6000 Ill. Ins. Jap. (1931) 141, fig. 204; MIWA, Syst. Cat. Formosan Col. (1931) 60. (syn. nov.)

Distribution.—Formosa.

11. *HELOTA SONANI* Ohta.

Helota sonani OHTA, Ins. Mats. 4 (1929) 66, 67, female (no male); MIWA, Syst. Cat. Formosan Col. (1931) 60.

Neohelota miwai OHTA, Ins. Mats. 5 (1931) 136; MIWA, Syst. Cat. Formosan Col. (1931) 60. (syn. nov.)

Helota fex ab. *mushana* KATO (*nec* Ohta), Bunruin Genshoku Nippon Konchu Zukan 9 (1933) pl. 6, fig. 6; MIWA, Syst. Cat. Formosan Col. (1931) 59.

Distribution.—Formosa.

12. *HELOTA MONTANA* Ohta.

Helota montana OHTA, Ins. Mats. 4 (1929) 66, 67; MIWA, Syst. Cat. Formosan Col. (1931) 60.

Distribution.—Formosa.

13. *HELOTA SEMIFULVA* Ritsema.

Helota semifulva RITSEMA, Notes Leyd. Mus. 3 (1881) 80; MIWA, Syst. Cat. Formosan Col. (1931) 60.

Distribution.—Formosa (after Miwa); Java.

TWO RARE PEDICULATE FISHES FROM THE PHILIPPINES

By ANTOLIN G. AGCO

Of the Fish and Game Administration, Bureau of Science, Manila

ONE PLATE

This paper is a systematic account of two rare Philippine fishes based on three specimens trawled from a depth of 30 fathoms in the China Sea in the vicinity of San Narciso, Zambales Province. These specimens form a part of the ichthyological collection of the Fish and Game Administration, Bureau of Science, Manila.

LOPHIIDÆ

ANGLERS

Body contracted, conical, tapering sharply backwards from shoulders. Skin mostly smooth, naked, with many dermal flaps about head. Head wide, depressed, exceedingly large. Mouth very large, terminal, opening into an enormous stomach; upper jaw protractile; maxillary without supplemental bone; lower jaw projecting, both jaws with very strong, unequal, depressible cardiform teeth, some caninelike. Vomer and palatines usually with strong teeth. Spinous dorsal of 3 isolated, tentaclelike spines on head, and 3 smaller spines behind, forming a continuous fin; second dorsal moderate, similar to anal. Pectoral membranes scarcely geniculated, each with 2 actinosts and elongate pseudobranchia. Ventrals jugular I, 5 widely separated. Branchial apertures comparatively large, in inferior axils of pectorals. Gills 3, without gill rakers. Pseudobranchiæ present.

Carnivorous fishes living at moderate or great depths of temperate and tropical seas in the Pacific, Atlantic, and Indian Oceans.

Genus *LOPHIOMUS* Gill

Lophiomus GILL, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus. 5 (1882) 552.

Head large, depressed, subcircular, occupying most of body, with several spines. Teeth in lower jaw mostly in 3 series, anteriorly in 4 series. Opercular membrane without free pos-

terior margin. Gill openings wide below pectorals, extending beyond them posteriorly. Pectorals broad, with 22 or 23 rays, bases retractible into branchial apertures. Spinous dorsal with six spines. Soft dorsal with 8 rays; anal with about 6 rays, last ray cleft to base and supported by a single basal bone. Vertebrae about 19.

LOPHIOMUS SETIGERUS (Vahl).

Lophius setigerus VAHL, Skrivt. Naturh. Selsk. IV 1 (1797) 215.

Lophius viviparus BLOCH and SCHNEIDER, Syst. Ichth. (1801) 142.

Lophius indicus ALCOCK, Journ. Asiatic Soc. Bengal 58 (1889) 302; Descriptive catalogue of Indian Deep-Sea Fishes in Indian Mus. (1899) 53.

Lophiomus setigerus JORDAN and EVERMANN, Bull. U. S. Nat. Mus. 47 pt. 3 (1898) 2714; REGAN, Ann. & Mag. Nat. Hist. 11 (1903) 282; WHITLEY, Rec. Aust. Mus. 16 (1927-1929) 236.

Head, 2; dorsal, I, I, I, III—8; pectoral, 22; ventral, I, 5; anal, 7; caudal, 7.

Head as broad as long. Mouth terminal, wide, oblique, lower lip extending beyond upper, exposing lower teeth. Teeth small, unequal, depressible on jaws; two series in upper, an outer row of smaller teeth and an inner twice as long; lower jaw with irregular series mostly in 3 rows, 4 rows anteriorly. One or two strong teeth on each side of vomer; four or five in palatine. Anterior part of tongue whitish, with a network of black lines. Eye small, slightly less than interorbital space. Snout 2.3 in head, with characteristic concavity in front of eye, bordered by two strong spines anteriorly. Operculum with four spines, three at preopercle, one at superior angle of opercle. First spine of preopercle at edge of disc pointing forward, other two outward. Other spines of head, two short ones behind angle of mouth, two in supraorbital, four in postorbital, three on medial ridge bordering concavity before eye, two at occiput, one at ridge between head and humeral process. Humeral spine trifold, first point vertical, other two directed posteriorly. Gills three; gill openings transverse, wider than eye, below pectorals, at hind edge of disc.

Spinous dorsal modified, composed of somewhat isolated spines. Foremost dorsal spine, a bristle with fleshy bait, reaching base of third dorsal spine. Second dorsal spine shorter than first, fringed throughout. First and third longest. Base of soft dorsal 2.5 in head. Pectorals broad with rounded mar-

gin, length about equal to distance from mouth to hind margin of eye. Ventrals small, 1.7 in caudal. Origin of anal below fourth ray of soft dorsal. Caudal subtruncate, 5.4 in total length.

Alcoholic specimens brownish olive, dermal flaps darker; ventral surface whitish.

Described from No. 31936, 63 mm, and No. 31937, 55 mm, trawled by M/L "Science I" from a depth of 30 fathoms in the China Sea off San Narciso, Zambales Province, Luzon, Philippine Islands, February 10, 1937. These are the first Philippine specimens taken of this genus and species.

Known to inhabit certain depths of the sea from the coast of Malabar to the seas of China and Japan.

OGCOCEPHALIDÆ

BAT FISHES

Head very broad and depressed, snout more or less elevated; trunk short and slender, mouth small, subterminal or inferior, lower jaw included, teeth villiform or cardiform. Gill openings very small, above and behind axils of pectorals. Body and head covered with bony tubercles or spines. Spinous dorsal reduced to a small rostral tentacle which is retractile into a cavity under a prominent process on forehead. Soft dorsal and anal small and short, ventrals well developed. Pectoral base strongly angled with long pseudobranchia and 3 actinosts. Branchiostegals 5. No pseudobranchiæ.

Fishes inhabiting warm waters of the Atlantic, Pacific, and Indian Oceans.

Genus HALIEUTOPSIS Garman

Halieutopsis GARMAN, Mem. Mus. Comparative Zoöl. Harvard 24 (1899) 89.

Head wide, broadly rounded forward; rostrum and skull raised above balance of disclike head. Snout indented; subopercular region much swollen. Eyes small. Rostral niche deep; rostrum overhanging; illicium protractile and depressible, esca with two large spherical bulbs and a median slender bifurcated more mobile portion. Mouth medium, anterior, overhung by swollen margins. Teeth absent from vomer, palatines, and apparently from tongue. Subopercular process and spines well developed. Gills two, none on first and fourth arches.

HALIEUTOPSIS VERMICULARIS Smith and Radcliffe.

Halieutopsis vermicularis SMITH and RADCLIFFE, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus. 42 (1912) 209; KAMOHARA, Annot. Zool. Japon. (1) 16 (1937) 12.

Head, 1.7; depth, 3; dorsal, 4; pectoral, 11; ventral, 5; anal, 3; caudal, 6.

Body short, slender, tapering posteriorly. Head comparatively broad, depressed, subcircular. Mouth small, subterminal. Jaws subequal, upper slightly protruding forward. Narrow band of villiform teeth in jaws and tongue, absent from vomer and palatines. Snout equal to eye, bluntly rounded anteriorly. Nostrils moderate, lying in a depression in anterior margin of rostrum. Illicial niche less than eye diameter, overhung by arched rostrum which projects beyond jaws. Illicium trilobed, two basal wedge-shaped bulbs and an upper median spherical lobe. Eye small, 5 in head. Interorbital equal to eye, trough-like, deep. Gill openings small, well ahead of pectoral base, forward and toward side of tail. Gills 2, gill rakers short, fleshy tubercles, six on lower arch of first.

Dorsal surface covered with stellate tubercles capped with spines. Minute tubercles between large ones. Rostral spines strong, an erect median spine overhanging tentacular cavity, with one lateral oblique bicuspid spine on each side. Large tubercles on sides of disc with bifid and trifid spinules. Ventral surface of disc naked, except for small spinous tubercles below mandible and minute fleshy tubercles scattered all around ventrally.

Soft dorsal origin about midway between occiput and tip of caudal, longest rays 5 in standard length. Pectorals 1.9 in head. Ventrals as long as soft dorsal, set wide apart. Anal inserted below soft dorsal base, its length 2 in pectoral. Caudal truncate, 2 in width of head.

Alcoholic specimens grayish olive; dorsal surface with olive vermiculations; tips of soft dorsal, anal and caudal dusky, ventral surface colorless.

Here described from specimen No. 31935, 34 mm long, trawled by M/L "Science I" at a depth of 30 fathoms off San Narciso, Zambales Province, Luzon, Philippines, February 10, 1937.

ILLUSTRATION

PLATE 1

- FIG. 1. *Lophiomus setigerus* (Vahl); dorsal view.
2. *Halieutopsis vermicularis* Smith and Radcliffe; dorsal view.
3. *Lophiomus setigerus* (Vahl); ventral view.
4. *Halieutopsis vermicularis* Smith and Radcliffe; ventral view.

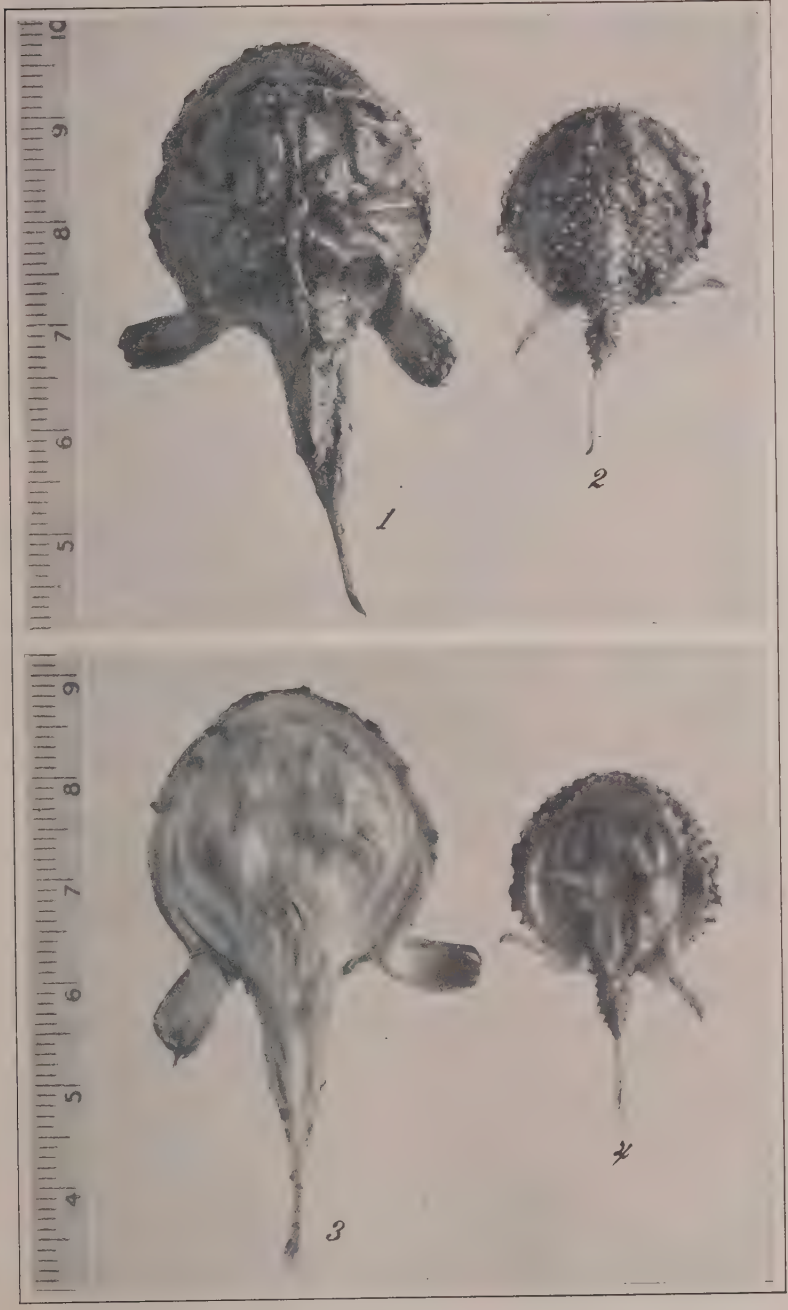


PLATE 1.

TWO NEW DECAPODS FROM THE PHILIPPINES

By GUILLERMO J. BLANCO

Of the Fish and Game Administration, Bureau of Science, Manila

TWO PLATES

In this paper are given the descriptions of two new Philippine species of *Palæmon*. The specimens of *P. lagdaoensis* were collected from the brackish portions of Cagayan River at Aparri, March, 1938. Those of *P. talavera* were collected by Mr. Florencio Talavera from Sampaloc Lake, San Pablo, Laguna Province, February 25, 1931.

The classification of the smaller varieties of Philippine palæmons is still lacking. In 1914 R. P. Cowles described ten species of fresh-water palæmons. The specimens described were mostly of larger varieties of prawns. Recently a new species of marine *Palæmon* from northern Luzon was described. This brings up to a total of thirteen the number of *Palæmon* species known to inhabit the seas and inland waters of the Philippines.

Genus PALÆMON Fabricius

Rostrum well developed, laterally compressed, toothed above and below. Carapace smooth, furnished with antennal and branchiostegal or hepatic spines. Pterygostomian spine wanting. Mandible with 3-jointed palp.

PALÆMON LAGDAOENSIS sp. nov. Plate 1.

Rostrum short, slightly curved upwards a little beyond antennal scale; rostral $\frac{6}{5-6}$ -dentate, 6 prominent teeth on upper margin, only 1 tooth on carapace, behind orbital margin; 5 to 6 teeth on lower margin; tip bifid. Carapace smooth; antennal and branchiostegal spines present; supraorbital and hepatic spines absent; pterygostomian angle rounded. Eyes slender, twice as long as wide, cornea 2.5 times its dorsal length; ocellus brownish to blackish. Mandible with molar and incisor process with 3-jointed palp (Plate 1, fig. 2). Maxillule cross-shaped, distal margin of lacinia with spinelike structures and setæ, endopodite thumblike (Plate 1, fig. 3). Third maxilliped with hair structures, reaching beyond ischium of first peræopod.

Lateral process of basal segment of first antennular peduncle ending in acute spine, reaching beyond middle of next segment. Outer antennular flagellum as long as inner flagellum. Antennal scale parallel-sided, 2.5 times as long as broad; outer margin straight, terminating with acute spine.

First peræopods equal in size and length, reaching beyond antennæ scale by their chela or reaching tip of rostrum. Chela with tufts of hairs; 3 times in carpus; mobile and immobile fingers with minute spines at cutting edge. Fingers as long as palm. Second peræopods equal in size and length, long, reaching beyond rostrum by tip of merus and chela. Chela, with tufts of hairs, 1.25 times in carpus, cutting edge of mobile finger with three teeth, of immobile finger with one tooth (Plate 1, fig. 4), fingers as long as palm.

Third, fourth, and fifth legs similar, fifth longer than third or fourth. Dactylus of third and fourth slightly curved; dactylus of fifth leg much curved. Propodus twice as long as carpus; posterior borders armed with slender spines in pairs.

Body robust in female, dorsally rounded. Abdominal pleura rounded in first to third somites; fourth and fifth acutely pointed behind. Sixth abdominal somite longer than fifth; breadth twice in dorsal length. Pleopods moderate, usually foliaceous. Telson tapering, with two pairs of curved spines dorsally. Apex of telson with rounded corners pointed at tip with two short equal externolateral spines and two long internolateral spines; between them a pair of setæ. Uropods each with a distinct spine.

Type locality.—Cagayan River. Specimens caught in scissor nets.

Color.—Live specimens yellowish brown with pink eggs in female. Specimens in alcohol yellowish pink.

Measurements.—Several specimens collected from Cagayan River within vicinity of Bisugu, Aparri, Cagayan, March, 1938, ranging from 32 to 40 mm, from tip of rostrum to tip of telson.

This new species is named *lagdaoensis* after the word *lagdao*, the local name for small fresh-water or brackish-water forms of prawns.

FALÆMON TALAVERÆ sp. nov. Plate 2.

Rostrum short, slightly curved, a little beyond antennal scale, $\frac{8-11}{3-4}$ -dentate, 8 to 11 prominent teeth on upper edge, two teeth on carapace, one behind orbital margin, the other just above

eye orbit; tip not bifid. Carapace smooth; antennal and hepatic spines present; branchiostegal spine wanting; pterygostomian angle rounded. Eyes slender, two times as long as wide, cornea 2.5 times its dorsal length.

Mandible with molar and incisor process with 3-jointed palp (Plate 2, fig. 2). Third maxilliped reaching beyond ischium of first peræopod. Lateral process of basal segment of first antennular peduncle ending in acute spine, reaching beyond middle of next segment. Outer antennular flagellum as long as inner flagellum. Antennal scale 3.5 times as long as broad, outer margin nearly straight, terminating in acute spine.

First peræopods equal in size and length, reaching beyond antennal scale and reaching beyond tip of rostrum. Chela with tufts of hairs (Plate 2, fig. 3); mobile and immobile fingers with minute spines at posterior cutting edge. Fingers a little longer than palm. Second peræopods equal in size and length, long, reaching beyond rostrum by one half of merus and chela. Chela without tufts of hairs; 1.2 times in carpus; cutting edge of mobile finger with two teeth; of immobile finger with three teeth (Plate 2, fig. 4); fingers as long as palm. Third, fourth, and fifth peræopods similar, fifth slightly longer than preceding two. Dactylus of fifth peræopod curved, third and fourth slightly curved. Propodus twice as long as carpus; posterior borders armed with slender spines in pairs.

Body not robust, dorsally rounded. Abdominal pleura rounded in first, second, and third somites, fourth and fifth acutely pointed behind. Pleopods moderate in size, usually foliaceous. Sixth abdominal somite as long as fifth dorsally. Telson tapering with two pairs of dorsal spines and one spine at apex. Apex of telson not rounded, corners pointed at tip, with two short equal externolateral spines, and two long internolateral spines, and in between three unequal long setæ. Uropods each with a distinct spine.

Type locality.—Sampaloc Lake, San Pablo, Laguna Province, Luzon.

Color.—Specimens in alcohol yellowish.

Measurements.—Several specimens collected from Sampaloc Lake, San Pablo, Laguna Province, range from 17 to 35 mm in length, from tip of rostrum to tip of telson.

The specific name is given in honor of Mr. Florencio Talavera, who is responsible for the identification of most of the carcinological collections of the Bureau of Science.

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ILLUSTRATIONS

[Drawings by Guillermo J. Blanco.]

PLATE 1. *PALÆMON LAGDAOENSIS* SP. NOV.

- FIG. 1. Female, lateral view; $\times 3.5$.
2. Mandible with palp; $\times 30$.
3. Maxillule; $\times 30$.
4. Portion of chela of second walking leg; showing cutting edge;
 $\times 30$.
5. Dorsal portion of telson, showing dorsal spines; $\times 30$.
6. Terminal portion of telson; $\times 50$.

PLATE 2. *PALÆMON TALAVERAE* SP. NOV.

- FIG. 1. Male, lateral view; $\times 3.5$.
2. Mandible with palp; $\times 30$.
3. Chela of first walking leg; $\times 30$.
4. Portion of chela of second walking leg, showing cutting edge;
 $\times 30$.
5. Dorsal portion of telson, showing dorsal spines; $\times 30$.
6. Terminal portion of telson; $\times 60$.

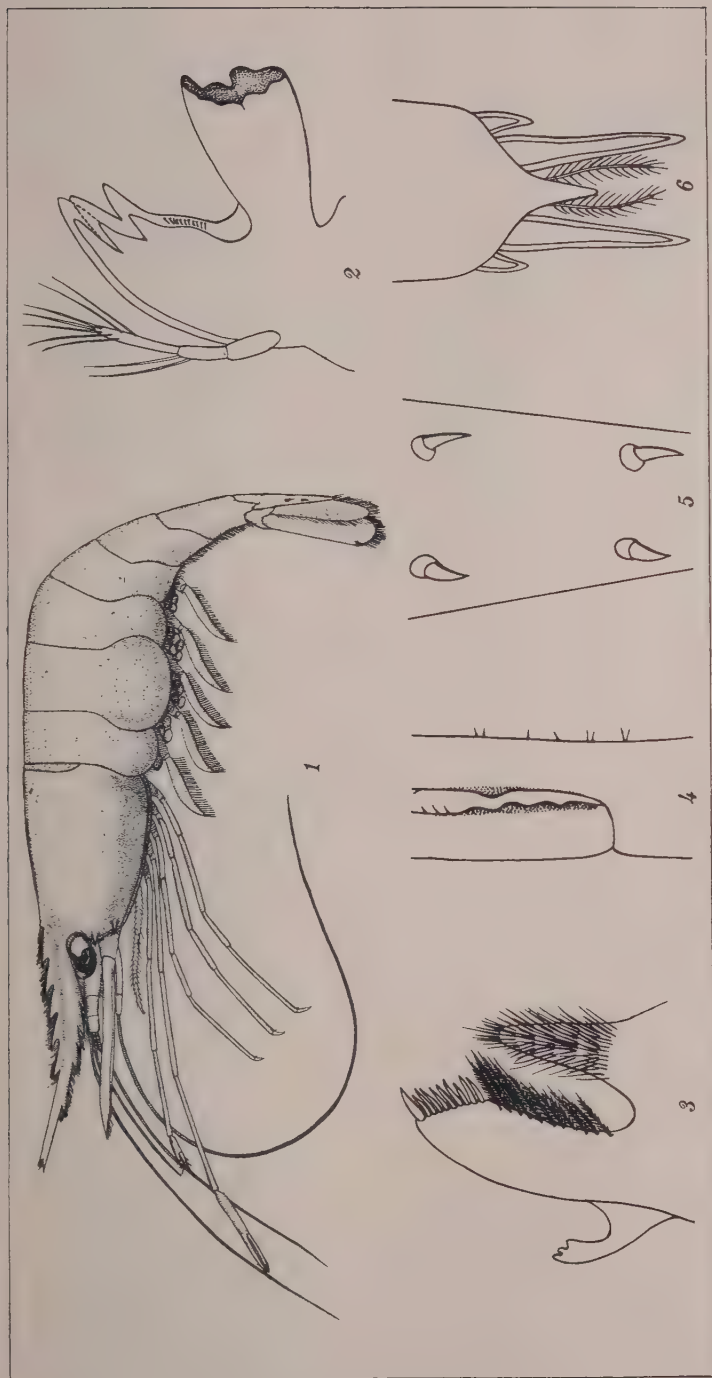


PLATE 1. PALÆMON LAGDAOENSIS SP. NOV.

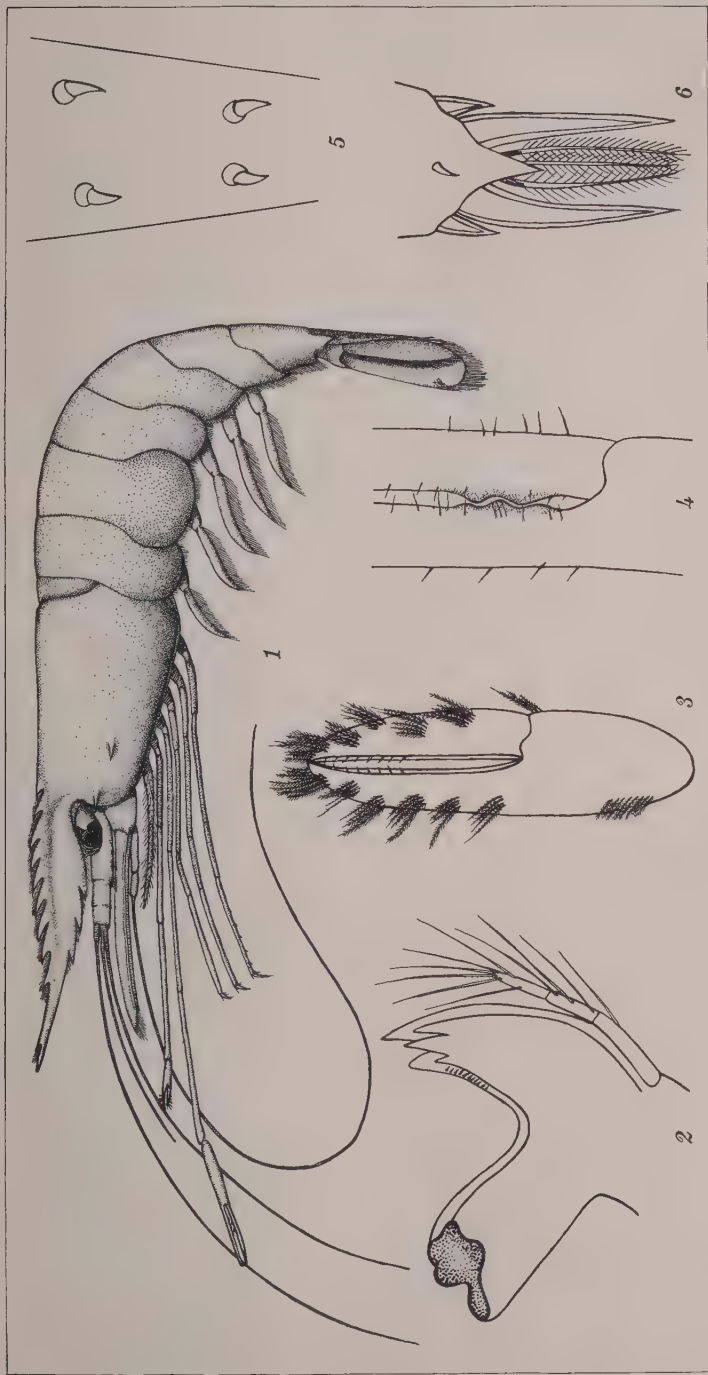


PLATE 2. PALÆMON TALAVERÆ SP. NOV.

SNAIL FISHING AND DUCK RAISING IN LAGUNA DE BAY, LUZON

By FELIX J. ARRIOLA and DOMICIANO K. VILLALUZ

Of the Fish and Game Administration, Bureau of Science, Manila

FOUR TEXT FIGURES

Since 1918 there has been a noticeable increase in the capital invested in the duck industry in Laguna de Bay. At present there are no less than 300,000 duck layers kept in the various towns bordering the lake. It is claimed that this progress in the duck industry has been attained as a result of the introduction and use of the *kaladkad* (text fig. 1, *a*) system of gathering snails. Previous to 1918 the *pañgahig* (text fig. 1, *b*) was employed by the duck raisers for snail fishing. The rapid increase in the number of birds kept and fed mostly with snails eliminated the use of this device, for it was inefficient and difficult to operate.

The *kaladkad* system which is now extensively used in snail fishing is being carefully studied to determine its relation to the fauna of the lake in general, with the extent of the snail fishery, and the effects of this industry on the other fishing gear employed in the lake.

SNAILS AS FEED FOR DUCKS

Mollusks represent the bulk of food of domesticated ducks kept around Laguna de Bay. People engaged in this industry maintain that the only way to raise these birds profitably is to feed them wholly or partially with snails. Alonte (1930) reported that approximately 2 or 3 *kaengs* of *Vivipara angularis* (*susong pangpang*) are consumed by 100 ducks a day. One *kaeng* contains approximately from 50,000 to 60,000 mature snails, or an average of 55,000. The 300,000 duck layers consume, therefore, an average of 7,500 *kaengs* or 412,500,000 snails a day, a comparatively large quantity taken from the small snail-bed area available in the lake.

Because of the scarcity of *V. angularis*, several other species of shells are gathered in large quantities. Among these are

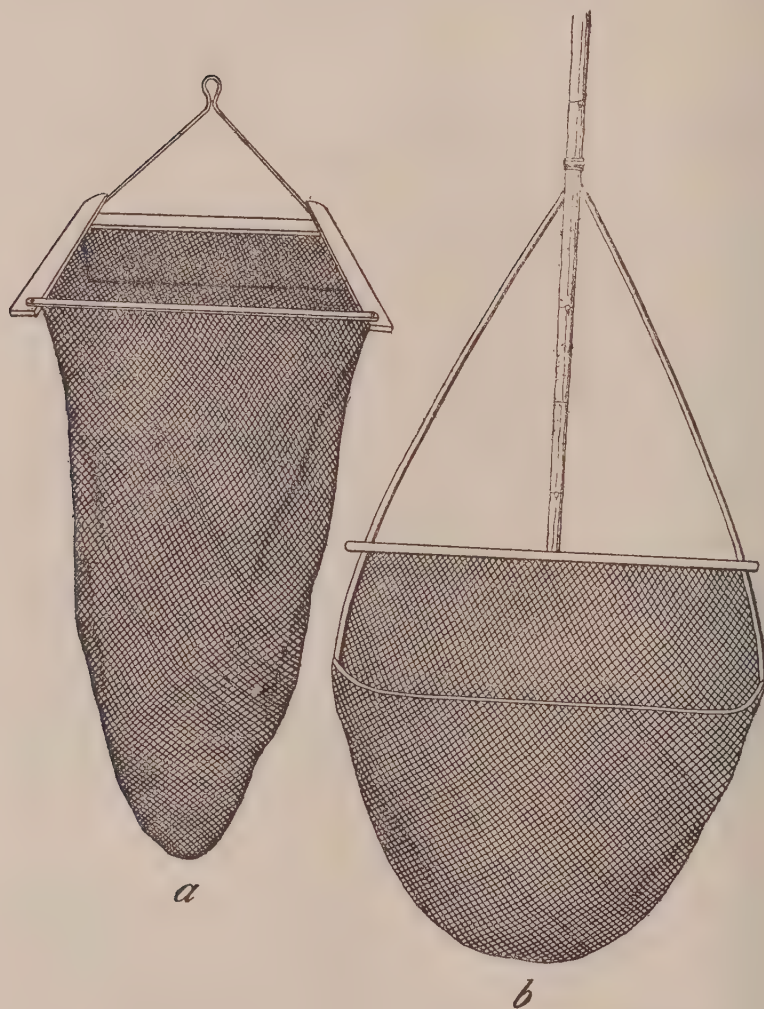


FIG. 1. Snail-fishing gear used in Laguna de Bay. a, Kaladkad; b, pañgahig.

Ampullaria luzonica Reeve (Ampulariidae); *Melania lateritia* Lea, *M. scabra* Müller, *M. pantherina* van den Bosch, and *M. asperata* Lamarck (Melaniidae); and *Corbicula manillensis* Philippi (Cyrenidae).

SNAIL POPULATION OF LAGUNA LAKE

The snail population in the lake has a wide distribution. From the edge to the middle of the lake *V. angularis*, together

with other species of shells, are known to thrive. The best breeding ground for *V. angularis* and the several species of *Melania*, however, is the muddy bottom of the lake from where the bulk of snails are hauled. *Corbicula manillensis* is known to inhabit sandy and stony bottoms. Thus the amount of this shell caught by the kaladkad is insignificant, as this gear cannot be operated in such places.

The area of Laguna de Bay is 930.7 square kilometers, and the area open for the kaladkad fishermen is placed at about

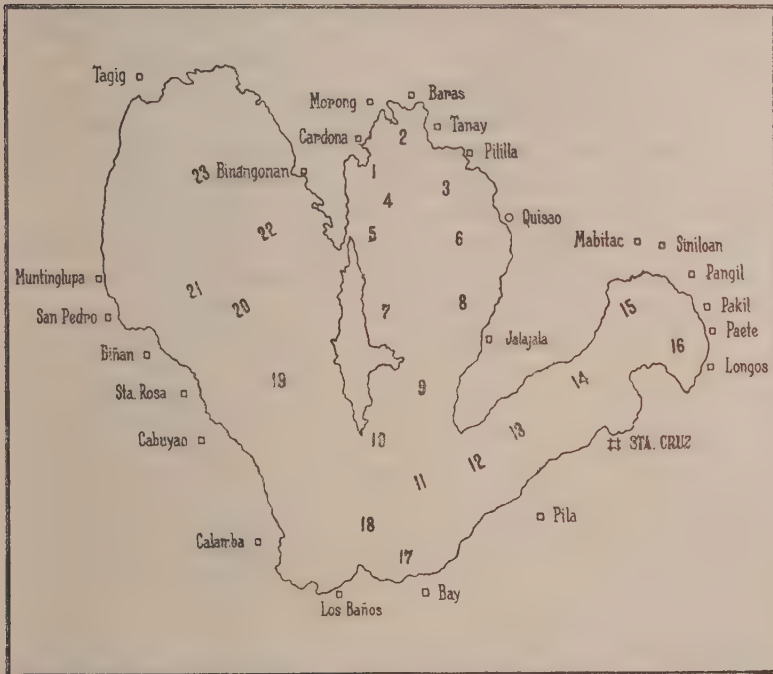


FIG. 2. Map showing the number of *V. angularis* per square meter, taken at random in Laguna de Bay.

850 square kilometers. The remaining 80.7 square kilometers are either occupied by fish corrals and various kinds of bamboo fish traps, or have sandy and gravelly bottom. Snail fishing in the latter region is very inconvenient, due to the obstructions met with in the operation of the kaladkad. Furthermore, the operation of any fishing gear within a radius of 100 meters from the fish corrals is prohibited. In spite of the wide area open for the kaladkad fishermen, however, many of them are hauling snails within prohibited zones.

Snail fishermen when interviewed about the relative abundance of snails in the lake confirmed the finding that the snails are becoming scarcer from year to year. The snail supply in the open portions of the lake is so low that even if snail fishing is allowed within prohibited zones the snails procurable are not sufficient to meet present or future demand.

QUANTITY OF VIVIPARA ANGULARIS AVAILABLE

In order to ascertain the approximate *Vivipara angularis* population in Laguna de Bay, 23 plots of 1 square meter each were selected at random, and the snails available on them were taken and counted June 30, 1937. Table 1 and text fig. 2, showing a map of the lake, show the places where the snails were taken. The average number of *V. angularis*, *Melania* spp., and *C. manillensis* per square meter was found to be 18, 318, and 14, respectively. *Melania* spp. and *C. manillensis* were also counted, because they are now being used as substitute for *V. angularis*. They are not, however, as valuable a feed as *V. angularis*, which is considered best for egg production.

TABLE 1.—Number of *Vivipara angularis* taken per square meter at random in Laguna de Bay.

Locality.	Lot No.	Vivi- para.	Mela- nia.	Curbi- cula.	Total.	Depth.
						<i>Ft.</i>
Looc Cove, Cardona.....	1	2	522	6	530	8
Between Baras and Tanay.....	2	13	518	57	588	12
Between Pililla and Quisao.....	3	22	405	8	455	10
Sorosoro.....	4	5	617	13	636	17
Near mouth of Diablo Pass.....	5	24	311	0	335	23
Bagumbayan.....	6	46	427	0	473	12
Between Lambac and Boor.....	7	10	308	0	318	15
Between Boor and Jalajala Point.....	8	1	629	8	638	14
Between Balibago and Jalajala Point.....	9	18	633	5	556	15
Talim Point.....	10	0	504	12	516	17
Between Jalajala Point and Bay Island.....	11	23	347	61	431	14
Between Jalajala Point and Pila.....	12	68	54	0	122	10
Between Jalajala Point and Nanghaya.....	13	36	221	21	278	8
Between Bagombong and Santa Cruz.....	14	4	872	7	883	8
Lumbang.....	15	25	623	68	716	6
Paete.....	16	43	23	0	66	5
Near Bay Island.....	17	7	547	6	560	14
Near Calamba Island.....	18	16	314	0	330	12
Between western side of Talim Island and Santa Rosa.....	19	3	216	0	219	10
Between San Pedro and Diablo Pass.....	20	10	307	17	334	12
Muntinlupa.....	21	31	212	23	265	7
Binangonan.....	22	0	321	0	321	6
Darangan.....	23	11	242	3	256	5
Average.....		18	318	14		
Total.....		419	9,173	315		

The following data were used in the present computation of the population of *V. angularis* in Laguna de Bay:

Average number of *V. angularis* per square meter, 18.

Area accessible to kaladkad, 850 sq. km.

Computed *V. angularis* population, 15,300,000,000.

V. angularis consumed daily, 412,500,000.

According to Alonte (1930) *Vivipara angularis* attains sexual maturity at an average length of 19.08 millimeters and an average width of 15.11 millimeters at the age of 63 days. According to the normal expectation in biotic potentiality of organisms, at least one individual out of any given number of offspring reaches sexual maturity. A generation of *V. angularis* lasts about 63 days, so that approximately 5 generations are produced in one year. Thus within a year one snail will give rise to about 32 snails.

The population of *V. angularis*, 15,300,000,000, is divided into 63 lots of 242,900,000 individuals each. For 63 days at least 1 lot reaches sexual maturity per day. The daily withdrawal is also divided into 63 groups, each group assumed to be distributed among each lot of the entire population. Thus $6,560,000 \frac{(412,500,000)}{63}$ *V. angularis* are assumed to be taken from each lot daily.

By this assumption the consumption is allotted uniformly and the danger of rapid exhaustion of the snail population is avoided.

But the daily consumption allotted to each group $\frac{(242,900,000)}{6,560,000}$

is contained 37 times in one lot, so that only the first 37 lots have to reproduce once in this present computation. The computation is therefore based on the remaining population of *V. angularis* after a lapse of 37 days.

Table 2 shows that on the first day lot 1 will be doubled, or 485,800,000 *V. angularis*. On the second day all the lots will be diminished by 6,560,000, and the population of lot 2 after reproduction is 472,680,000. From the same table, the population of each lot is given at maturity. The population of lot 1 after deducting the consumption for 37 days is 243,080,000 *V. angularis*, and the population of lot 37 on the 37th day is 6,920,000 so that on the 38th day this lot will be exhausted. The remaining 37 lots, which have reproduced once, will be exhausted after 11 days, because the total population of the 37 lots after 37 days is 4,625,490,000, and divided by 412,500,000 (daily quantity consumed) will give only 11 days. It is safe

to conclude, therefore, that 38 days after June 30, 1937, when the census of the snail population was taken, the population of *V. angularis* will be so small, almost reaching the zero point, that rehabilitation of this species is impossible, especially as long as the people persist on their present practice.

TABLE 2.—Diminution of first 37 lots that have reproduced once.

Lot.	Population at maturity.	Days before lot reproduces.	Population after reproduction.	Snails taken in 37 days.	Remaining snails after 37 days.
1	242,900,000	37	485,800,000	242,720,000	243,080,000
2	236,340,000	36	472,680,000	236,160,000	236,520,000
3	229,780,000	35	459,560,000	229,600,000	229,960,000
4	223,220,000	34	446,440,000	223,040,000	223,400,000
5	216,660,000	33	433,320,000	216,480,000	216,840,000
6	210,100,000	32	420,200,000	209,920,000	210,280,000
7	203,540,000	31	407,080,000	203,360,000	203,720,000
8	196,980,000	30	393,960,000	196,800,000	197,160,000
9	190,420,000	29	380,840,000	190,240,000	190,600,000
10	183,860,000	28	367,720,000	183,680,000	184,040,000
11	177,300,000	27	354,600,000	177,120,000	177,480,000
12	170,740,000	26	341,480,000	170,560,000	170,920,000
13	164,180,000	25	328,360,000	164,000,000	164,360,000
14	157,620,000	24	315,240,000	157,440,000	157,800,000
15	157,060,000	23	302,120,000	150,880,000	151,240,000
16	144,500,000	22	289,000,000	144,320,000	144,680,000
17	137,940,000	21	275,880,000	137,760,000	138,120,000
18	131,380,000	20	262,760,000	131,200,000	131,560,000
19	124,820,000	19	249,640,000	124,640,000	125,000,000
20	118,260,000	18	236,520,000	118,080,000	118,440,000
21	111,700,000	17	223,400,000	111,520,000	111,880,000
22	105,140,000	16	210,280,000	104,960,000	105,320,000
23	98,580,000	15	197,160,000	98,400,000	98,760,000
24	92,020,000	14	184,040,000	91,840,000	92,280,000
25	85,460,000	13	170,920,000	85,280,000	85,640,000
26	78,900,000	12	157,800,000	78,720,000	79,080,000
27	72,340,000	11	144,680,000	72,160,000	72,520,000
28	65,780,000	10	131,560,000	65,600,000	65,960,000
29	59,220,000	9	118,440,000	59,040,000	59,400,000
30	52,660,000	8	105,320,000	52,480,000	52,840,000
31	46,100,000	7	92,200,000	45,920,000	46,280,000
32	39,540,000	6	79,080,000	39,360,000	39,720,000
33	32,980,000	5	65,960,000	32,800,000	33,160,000
34	26,420,000	4	52,840,000	26,240,000	26,600,000
35	19,860,000	3	39,720,000	19,680,000	20,040,000
36	13,300,000	2	26,600,000	13,120,000	13,480,000
37	6,740,000	1	13,480,000	6,560,000	6,920,000
38	180,000	0	360,000		
	4,625,490,000				

KALADKAD

The frame of the kaladkad or dredge net is in the form of an isosceles triangle made of cast iron. The base is 3 feet long and the sides are 3.5 feet high each. About 6 inches above

the base and parallel to it is another iron bar, which, together with the base and the lower part of the sides, forms a regular trapezoid. Attached to the upper parallel iron bar and perpendicular to its plane is a rectangular board 5 inches by 24 inches which serves as a regulator of the pressure of the gear against the bottom of the lake during the process of hauling. Around the mouth of the trapezoid is attached a semicircular net (Agui-naldo Standard No. 1) which is in the form of a bag. The vertex of the triangle is provided with a loop where an abaca rope of about $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch diameter is hooked. This rope, about 30 yards long, is used in towing the gear.

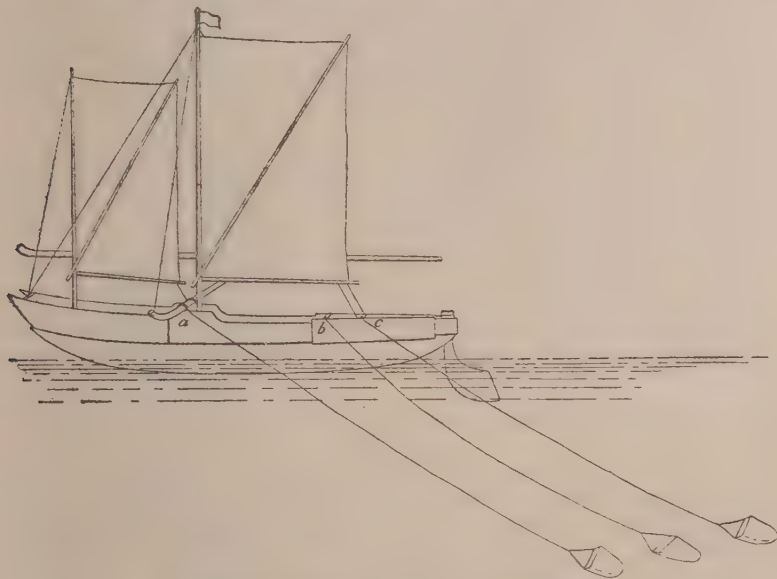


FIG. 3. Native dugout of the Laguna outrigger type.

The boats employed are the native dugouts or bancas of the Laguna-outrigger type with an average capacity of 12 kaengs of shells. They are about 12 yards long with a width of 4 feet and a depth of 3 feet. Each sailboat is usually manned by at least two men employing 2 to 3 dredge nets at a time. One man acts as the steersman, whose main duty is to direct the course of the sailboat. The other two men operate the dredge nets on the hold of the sailboat.

The end of the rope connecting one of the gear is tied around the bamboo crosspiece of the outrigger and the other two around

the two wood crosspieces set far apart on the stern hold of the sailboat (text fig. 3, *a*, *b*, and *c*). The gear are passed out into the water and hauling begins by setting on the sails. The gear are hauled when half full of snails. By pulling the rope every so often an experienced snail fisherman can easily determine

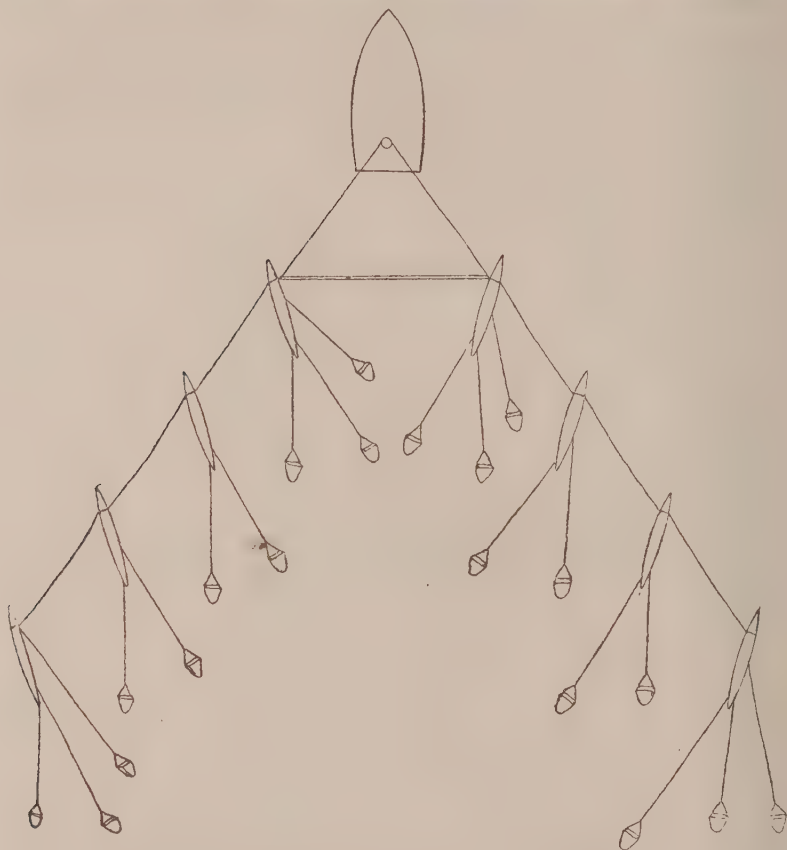


FIG. 4. Motor boat in the action of towing the sailboats each of which drags at least three dredge nets.

when to haul. The shells are cleansed of the mud before they are dumped into the sailboat and the operation is repeated until the required amount of snails is gathered. At least three to four hours are necessary to load a sailboat of a capacity of 12 kaengs.

Sails are used to propel the sailboat whenever the wind blows in a favorable direction. In calm weather the sailboat is propelled with man power—by paddle or by bamboo poles.

Nowadays motor power is used in gathering snails in Laguna de Bay. A motor launch tows from 20 to 30 sailboats, each of which drags at least 3 dredge nets. The sailboats are placed in two lines at intervals of 10 feet, and tied to the rear end of the motor boat. A beam stretched across the first two boats of each line keeps the two lines separate. In actual operation the two lines of sailboats assume an inverted V-shaped arrangement and all the dredge nets are dragged on the inner side of the two lines. This arrangement allows a uniform dredging of the area covered (text fig. 4), and prevents the intertwining of ropes and the passing of any dredge net over an area already hauled by another.

A dredge net operated in connection with a motor boat is heavier to haul than one dragged by a sailboat operating alone. The speed of a sailboat may be momentarily slowed down by the lowering or loosening of the sail, which makes the hauling of the dredge net comparatively lighter. In a series of sailboats towed by a motor this is not possible. The motor boat must maintain a constant speed, because any slight slackening in speed will necessarily disturb the arrangement of the bancas as well as the dredge nets.

ILL EFFECTS OF THE KALADKAD

On the fauna of the lake in general.—Any body of fresh water, such as a lake, harbors a particular type of community of plants as well as species of animals or larvæ associated with them. Large plants serve as shelter and protection for aquatic larval stages of insects and larvæ of fishes and other lower forms of life of animals, while large animals feed on the smaller plants and animals at the bottom. As the entire bottom open to the kaladkad is scraped off often to a depth of about 2 to 4 inches, the growth of all kinds of plants and the various animals associated with them is greatly disturbed. Besides, many immature fishes are caught and destroyed with the snails. Among them are young of *biyang puti*, *Glossogobius giurus* (Gobiidæ); *kanduli*, *Arius* spp. (Ariidæ); *ayunġin*, *Therapon plumbea* (Theraponidæ); and the *bañgayñgay*, *Ophiocara aporos* (Eleo-

tridæ). Crustaceans, fresh-water shrimps, and crabs are also represented in the catch of dredge nets.

Of the fishes mentioned, biyang puti probably suffers the greatest destruction. Newly spawned gobies, which are held in bunches by a gelatinous membrane and attached on the under surface of the mud caves, become detached and destroyed when the kaladkad passes over them.

On the snail fishery.—The amount of snails consumed by more than 300,000 ducks a day (7,500 kaengs, or 412,500,000 snails) is responsible, more than any other factor, for the rapid depletion of snails in Laguna de Bay. In addition to this big amount of *V. angularis* hauled in every day, four causes of less importance influence the scarcity of snails; namely, the kaladkad net used at present being a nonselective fishing gear, the amount of snails wasted in feeding, occurrence of polluted water (*masamang tubig*, Tag.) in various portions of the lake, and the entrance of saltwater into the lake through Pasig River.

The kaladkad, being a nonselective fishing gear, catches snails of all sizes. Even the smallest or newly spawned *V. angularis* are represented in the catch. The immature group of *V. angularis* noted in the catch of kaladkad are on the average 6 millimeters long and 3.56 millimeters wide. The smallest *V. angularis* was 3 millimeters long and 2.51 millimeters wide. This size is about that of a newly spawned *V. angularis*. The mesh opening of the net used is so small that immature individuals of almost all species of shells available in the lake are present in the catch. The catching of these immature snails is very destructive to the snail population, allowing it no chance to reproduce before being gathered.

Due to the insanitary system of storing the snails, more snails are wasted than are actually consumed by the flock. The water used in sprinkling the snails kept in *tiklis* is taken from the swimming pool of the flock. This water is highly polluted on account of the decayed snails and fæces of the ducks, so that instead of refreshing the snails it kills them suddenly. The snails easily rot on account of the insanitary condition of the duck pen. The ducks do not eat rotten snails. If decayed snails are accidentally taken in by the ducks because of hunger, ptomaine poisoning results. The high percentage of mortality among the ducks kept around the lake is primarily attributed to hunger and to the unhealthful condition of the duck pens.

Decayed snails have a very obnoxious odor. Often enormous

numbers of the larvæ and pupæ of flies are left undisturbed for a week in big heaps of rotten snails. Decayed snails serve as ideal breeding ground for flies. Serious outbreak of diseases may thus occur in the localities where ducks are raised.

The occurrence of polluted water in various portions of the lake spells death to the animal forms inhabiting Laguna de Bay. This condition usually occurs near the shore of the lake. During summer, when the water is low, various aquatic plants and organic matter rot along the shore. At the beginning of the rainy season these decayed plants and organic materials are washed off, causing water pollution in the locality. But the most serious cause of water pollution which results in the scarcity of the snail population is the rotting of *lia* (Tag.), a unicellular alga, *Clathrocystis aeruginosa* (Kützinger) Henfrey. A very thick slimy cake of this alga is usually formed on the surface of the water during summer. Due to the heat of the sun it decays together with the smaller fishes and organisms. After the decomposition of the algæ the snails have been observed to float on the surface of the water. Polluted water can easily be detected by a very characteristic fœtid odor of the decomposing algæ.

Another factor affecting the snail population is the entrance of salt water into the lake through Pasig River. At high tide a big portion of the lake becomes brackish. A great number of dead *V. angularis* have been observed to float on the surface of the water due to the diffusion of salt water into the lake. According to experienced snail fishermen, *Melania* spp. are not affected by the occasional increase in salinity of the water in the lake.

On other fishing gear.—On account of the pronounced scarcity of snails procurable in the open portions of the lake, snail fishermen are prone to invade even the prohibited zones. Invasion of the shallower parts of the lake results very often in the destruction of fish corrals and bamboo fish traps. Damage to the bamboo fish traps cannot be avoided because their position under the water cannot be detected. As a result complaints have been filed against kaladkad fishermen, and there have been frequent quarrels between kaladkad fishermen and the owners of the fish corrals and bamboo fish traps. Frequent violations of the fishery laws are committed as long as there are snails procurable in the neighborhood of fish corrals and fish traps. The decrease in the catch of these fishing gear is claimed to

be due to the frequent snail fishing which tends to drive schools of fish away.

The gill nets and set lines (with baited hooks) are fishing appliances employed to catch fish at night. They are set in the lake from 2 P. M. to 6 P. M. and hauled in about 3 A. M. Because the kaladkad fishermen are hauling snails day and night, they are a menace to the gill nets and set lines. Very often these fishing gear are never recovered because they are towed several kilometers away from the place of setting. Gill nets and set lines hauled by a kaladkad are often destroyed or rendered useless.

USES OF SNAILS

There are three species of mollusks used as food by the people around Laguna de Bay; namely, *Corbicula manillensis*, *Ampullaria luzonica*, and *Melania asperata*. The people resort to eating these shells when the price of fish is extraordinarily high. Snails also serve as food for the fishes caught in commercial quantities in the lake. According to Mane (1929) snails rank second in importance among the food of kanduli. In most instances the alimentary canals of commercial fishes have been found to contain nothing but snails and, with the present scarcity of snails, it is feared that the natural food of the fishes in the lake has been greatly reduced. Snails are also used as bait in fishing. In some cases, too, lime is manufactured by burning the shells of *Melania asperata*.

But the most important use of snails in Laguna de Bay is as food for the native ducks. They represent about 90 per cent of the daily diet of the ducks kept around the lake. The progress of the duck industry is at present determined only by the availability of a good supply of snails. The duck industry is bound to decline if the people continue to refuse to look for and buy feeds other than the snails whose supply is now very limited. Duck raisers still persist in the belief that the snails arise spontaneously and cannot be depleted even in the face of the present scarcity. They also have the notion that snails are the only right kind of feed for their flocks. They have altogether disregarded the importance of other protein supplements, such as shrimp and fish meals. Their failure to provide adequate food for the ducks is responsible for the poor supply of eggs in the local markets.

NECESSITY OF FISH-PROTEIN SUPPLEMENT IN THE DIET OF DUCKS

In order to maintain a regular supply of duck eggs, other protein supplements must be introduced. Cruz (1932) reported that snail-fed ducks consume the most feed and are the most expensive to raise. On the other hand, in the ducks which are given protein supplement other than that derived from snails, the production of eggs is more or less controlled. Ducks fed with other protein supplement lay eggs regularly throughout the year.

Fronza and Mencias (1937) reported that the eggs of ducks that depend upon snails for protein supplement in the feed have yolks that are deep orange in color. It is an accepted fact that snail-fed ducks produce eggs with very fishy flavor. In the experiment conducted by Fronza and Mencias (1937) the taste and color of the eggs obtained from ducks fed with mash mixture (see below) compare favorably with chicken eggs. The different kind of mash mixtures are given in Table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Mash mixtures given to ducks by Fronza and Mencias.*

Feeds used.	Lot 1.	Lot 2.	Lot 3.	Lot 4.
	<i>Kg.</i>	<i>Kg.</i>	<i>Kg.</i>	<i>Kg.</i>
Shrimp meal.....	20.0			
Fish meal.....		20.0	30.0	40.0
Corn meal.....	20.0	20.0	17.5	15.0
Rice bran.....	60.0	60.0	52.5	45.0
Price per 100 kg., in pesos.....	6.81	5.00	5.75	6.81

To every kilogram of each of the mash mixtures one kilogram of common table salt and two kilograms of ground shells were added. Chopped green grass was added to each lot morning and afternoon. The feed was given four times a day. The ducks were given at each feeding time as much feed as they were able to consume in 20 minutes. According to the experiment, the only water accessible to the ducks at all times was drinking water which was changed four or five times a day. The ducks laid eggs regularly throughout the year. The most economical production of eggs was that of lots 2 and 3, where the cost of feeds needed to produce a dozen eggs was 19 and 23 centavos, respectively. The above mash mixture is at present highly recommended to restore the duck industry around Laguna de Bay.

The duck industry cannot be restored to its former status unless the snail fishery in Laguna de Bay is rehabilitated. Re-

habilitation can only be attained by feeding the ducks in the meantime with protein supplement, such as the mash mixture formulated by Fronda and Mencias in 1937. The duck raiser's only alternative now is to buy protein supplement or abandon the industry.

Duck raisers still consider snails the best feed for ducks. As a matter of fact, the Pateros duck raisers are at present gathering marine species of snails in the vicinity of Malabon and Navotas, Rizal Province. Like the conditions existing at present in Laguna de Bay, the supply of snails in these localities is also limited, so that the cost of producing eggs per unit weight of snail food is extraordinarily high.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In order to avoid the decline of the duck industry proper conservation of the snail fishery in Laguna de Bay is urgently recommended. Only a limited number of the ducks should be kept and maintained to balance the probable yield of the snails in the lake.

The kaladkad system of snail fishing is very destructive to the fauna of the lake in general, to the snail fishery, and to the other fishing gear employed to catch fish in the lake. The kaladkad net used catches snails of all sizes found in Laguna de Bay. The harmful effect of the kaladkad on the snail fishery, together with the big amount of snails consumed by the ducks every day, are responsible, more than any other factor, for the rapid depletion of snails in the lake.

Snail-fed ducks are expensive to raise. Moreover, duck raisers are not dependent upon snails alone to carry on the enterprise profitably. A more economical feed for egg production should be introduced. Fish protein supplement if given at the rate of 20 to 30 per cent gives the best returns on the cost of feed consumed.

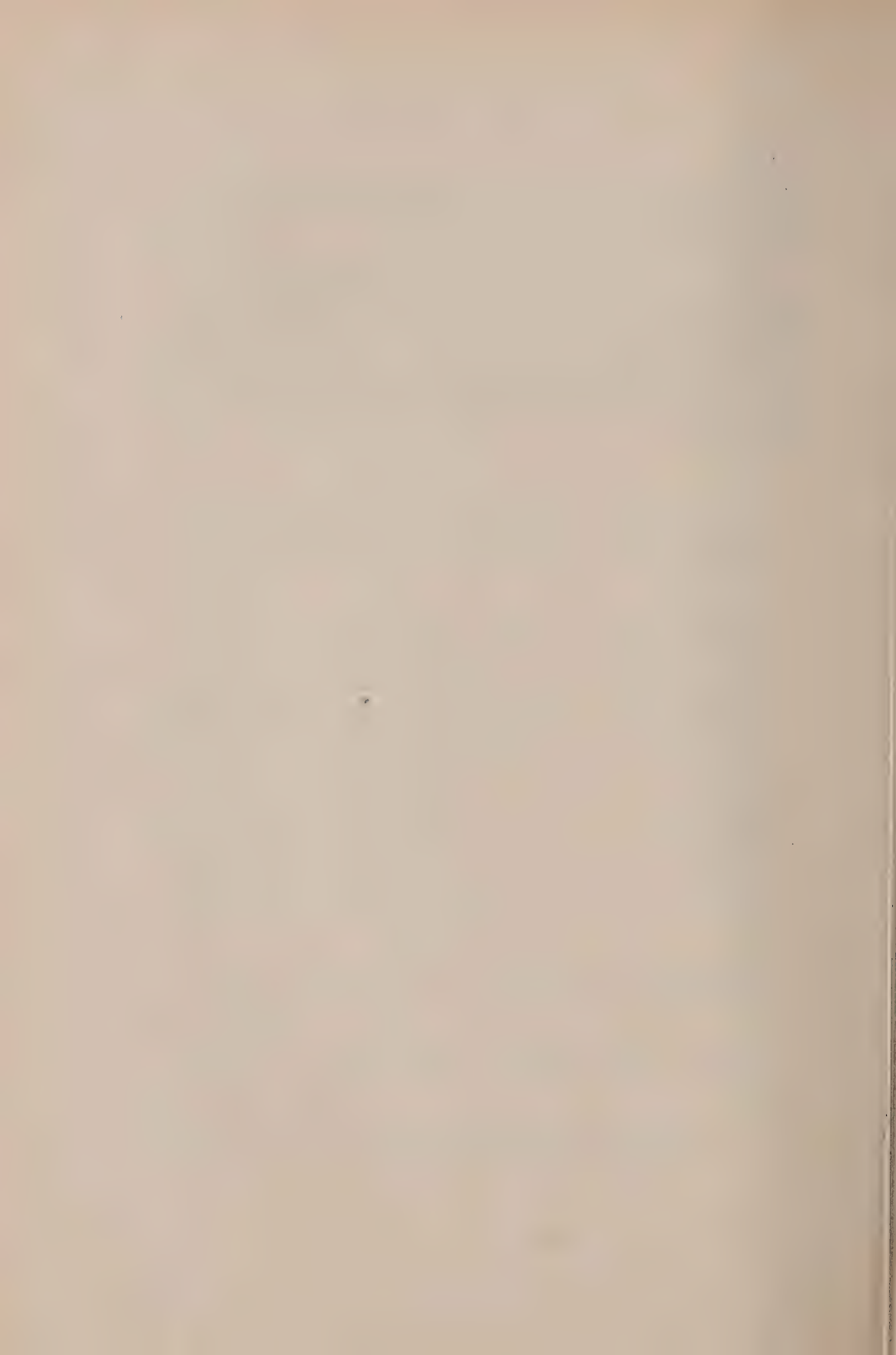
RECOMMENDATIONS

1. That the mesh openings of the kaladkad net be standardized. Every kaladkad fisherman should use the Aguinaldo Standard No. 5.
2. That no kaladkad fisherman be allowed to gather snails at night, in order to give a chance to other fishermen to employ gill nets and set lines.
3. That no fisherman be allowed to gather snails within 200 meters from the fish traps (fish corrals) and 100 meters from bobos to avoid disturbance and damage done to these gear.

4. That only sufficient snails be given to the flock, and the excess supply be placed under water to avoid rotting and decay. Rotting snails must be carefully buried.

5. That no kaladkad be operated at any time of the year in the waters east of Talim Island. This side, belonging to the Municipal waters of Cardona, Jalajala, and Pililla, Rizal Province, is considered the best breeding ground of the commercial food fishes inhabiting Laguna de Bay.

6. That supplementary feed be introduced to obtain the best returns on the feed consumed. Supplementary feed will also improve the eating quality of the eggs.



ILLUSTRATIONS

TEXT FIGURES

- FIG. 1. Snail-fishing gear used in Laguna de Bay. *a*, Kaladkad; *b*, pañgahig.
2. Map showing the number of *V. angularis* per square meter taken at random in Laguna de Bay.
 3. Native dugout of the Laguna outrigger type.
 4. Motor boat in the action of towing the sailboats each of which drags at least three dredge nets.

THE OCCURRENCE OF FUGACIOUS CAMBIUM IN THE RHIZOME OF *CURCUMA LONGA* LINNÆUS

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TWO PLATES

The rhizome of *Curcuma longa* Linn., of the Zingiberaceæ, shows a cambial activity limited to a very short length of its apical part. Similar fugacious cambium has been recorded by Skutch(7) in the bulb of banana, of the Musaceæ "whose chief function is the origination of the adventive roots and the vascular bundles which link them with the leaf-trace bundles."

To determine the occurrence of fugacious cambium in the rhizome of *Curcuma longa*, old rhizomes of this plant with terminal and lateral buds were kept under moist sawdust for some days. At the end of this period the rhizomes were found to have resumed their growth, and roots had appeared at the base of the lateral buds. These buds were cut off and fixed, some in stock chromoacetic solution, and others in the fixative named "Craf" by Randolph.(5) Materials fixed in stock chromoacetic solution were washed in water, dehydrated in dioxan, and embedded according to Maheswari's review of T. T. Baird.(4) Materials fixed in "Craf" were directly immersed in 75 per cent alcohol, and then dehydrated and embedded in the usual way. Microtome sections in transverse and longitudinal planes were cut 6 to 10 μ thick and stained in safranin and Delafield's hæmatoxylin.

Examination of the sections showed that an undifferentiated meristem marks the extreme apex of the rhizome of *Curcuma longa*, at a little lower level of which some rudimentary primary vascular bundles appear mostly in a ring (Plate 1, fig. 1), together with many older cortical (leaf-trace) bundles on the outside (Plate 2, fig. 2). Soon after the development of the primary vascular cylinder is completed, some of the pericyclic cells at different places undergo one or more periclinal divisions, forming strips of fugacious cambium which may vary from two to four layers of cells. All these strips taken together make up

about three-fourths of the circumference of the section, with occasional interruptions for the passing out of the radially extending leaf-trace bundles (Plate 1, fig. 2). This cambium produces secondary vascular bundles on its inner side only and is found, as thought by Cheadle,⁽²⁾ to be associated with the production of adventive roots (Plate 1, fig. 3), thus linking the vascular bundles of adventive roots with those of the stele of the rhizome as in the case of the banana.^(7, p. 235, fig. 1) The duration of this fugacious cambium is very short; it soon disappears almost abruptly, leaving behind a definite ring which Engler and Prantl⁽³⁾ refer to as "Die stark in die Augen springende Kreislinie," consisting of a weft of crowded bundles, the output of secondary growth (Plate 2, fig. 3). This ring is observed even with the unaided eye throughout the older portion of the rhizome when the rhizome is cut into thin pieces or slices. The crowded arrangement of the secondary vascular bundles and their distribution in a ring clearly distinguish them from the primary vascular bundles which are loosely arranged and scattered. Similar crowded secondary vascular bundles were recorded by Scott and Brebner⁽⁶⁾ in the stem of *Aristea corymbosa* Benth. of the Irideæ.

The primary vascular bundles are closed and collateral (Plate 1, fig. 4) but of the secondary vascular bundles some are collateral (Plate 1, fig. 5) while others are amphiphloic (Plate 1, fig. 6). The sclerenchymatous ring is absent in both the primary and secondary bundles. In size the primary and secondary vascular bundles are variable (Plate 2, fig. 3). In transverse sections oblique and even some longitudinal bundles appear amongst the secondary vascular bundles. The formation of periderm also takes place, but it is very superficial.

Buds arise exogenously at the axils of scaly leaves of the rhizome; in serial transverse sections the peripheral vascular bundles of the axillary buds pass gradually towards the center through the cortex till they become arranged in the same ring of secondary vascular bundles of the rhizome, and thus the circular stele (Plate 1, fig. 1; Plate 2, fig. 2) takes up an oval outline (Plate 1, fig. 2; Plate 2, fig. 3).

In some arboreal forms amongst monocotyledons Arber⁽¹⁾ has recorded a form of cambial thickening which, though differing widely from that of dicotyledons, is yet competent to

¹ Die Nat. Pflanzenfamilien II 6 (1899) 13.

produce secondary growth; it was found in *Aloe*, *Cordyline*, *Dasyllirion*, *Dracaena*, *Kniphofia*, *Nolina*, *Yucca*, *Xanthorrhoea*, *Agave*, *Furcraea*, *Aristea* and related genera, *Testudinaria*, *Tamus*, and *Dioscorea*. But this cambium was of permanent nature, unlike the fugacious cambium in the rhizome of *Curcuma longa*.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This work was carried out under the direction of Dr. S. R. Bose, Professor of Botany of Carmichael Medical College, to whom I am obliged for helpful suggestions and useful criticism.

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ILLUSTRATIONS

PLATE 1

- FIG. 1. Rudimentary primary vascular bundles, *pvb*, in a ring around the central ground tissue, *gt*; $\times 208$.
2. Strips of fugacious cambium, *f cam*, secondary vascular bundles of varying shape, *svb*, two spiral vessels, *v*, one vascular bundle, *vb*, passing longitudinally, and endodermis, *en*; $\times 200$.
3. Origin of root, *r*, and secondary vascular bundles, *svb*, from fugacious cambium, *f cam*, in the middle, and very young secondary vascular bundle, *ysvb*, developing from cambium; $\times 244$. Reconstructed from two slides.
4. Closed collateral primary vascular bundle. Xylem, *x*, phloem, *ph*, and protoxylem, *pr x*; $\times 220$.
5. Closed collateral secondary vascular bundle. Xylem, *x*, and phloem, *ph*; $\times 200$.
6. Amphiphloic secondary vascular bundle. Xylem, *x*, phloem, *ph*, and endodermis, *en*, with casparian strips; $\times 240$.

PLATE 2

- FIG. 1. Strips of fugacious cambium, secondary vascular bundles, spiral vessels, and endodermis. Eye piece 15 x and low-power objective 16 mm; original photomicrograph reduced to $\frac{3}{4}$.
2. Central ground tissue, *gt*, with a ring of rudimentary primary vascular bundles, *pvb*, and older leaf traces, *lt*, on the outside, two leaf bases, *lb*, attached to the central stem, and small gaps, *g*, at extremity of leaf base. Eye piece 10 x and low-power objective 16 mm; original photomicrograph reduced to $\frac{3}{4}$.
3. Secondary vascular bundles, *svb*, just inside the endodermis, *en*, arranged in a ring, primary vascular bundles, *pvb*, lying in the middle.

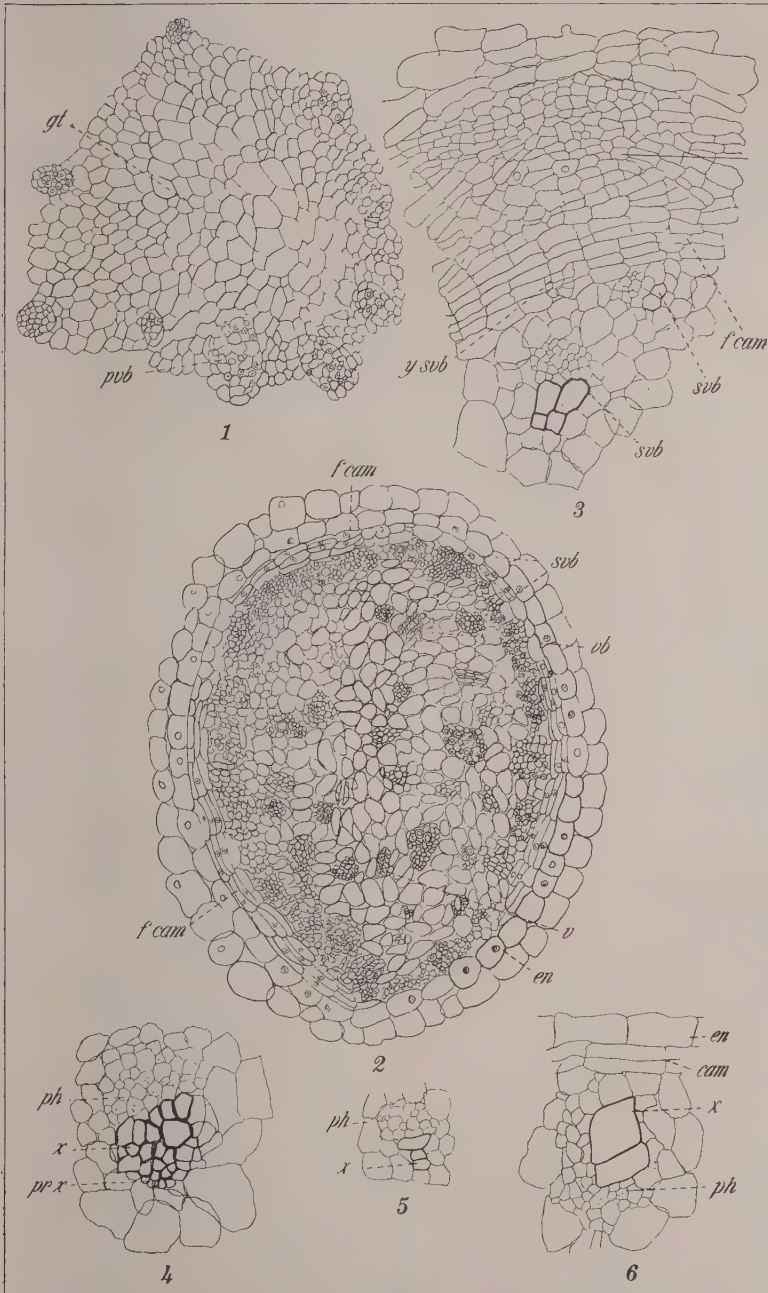
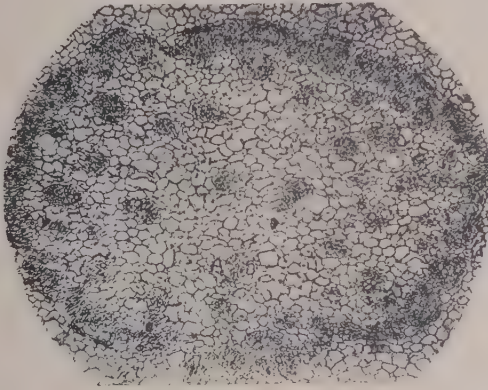
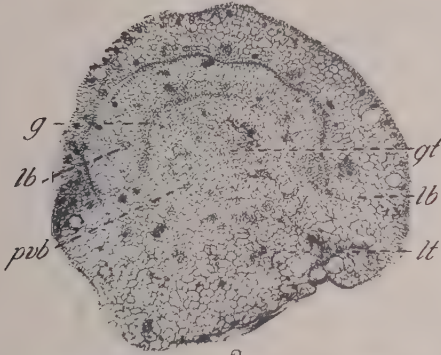


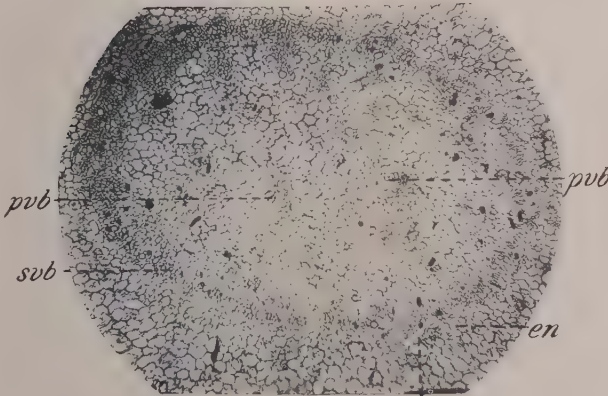
PLATE 1.



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PLATE 2.

ROASTING OF PHILIPPINE LOW-GRADE CHROMITE FOR THE PRODUCTION OF SODIUM BICHROMATE¹

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FOUR TEXT FIGURES

A deposit of chrome ore, estimated to consist of at least eight million tons, is located in the Masinloc district, Zambales Province, Philippine Islands. In view of the large available quantity of this chromite, experiments were carried out by the present authors, partly in the laboratory of Consolidated Mines and partly in the Bureau of Science, to determine the best conditions for roasting the ore for the production of sodium bichromate. The results are recorded in this paper.

The production of bichromate by roasting chromite has been practiced since the early part of the 19th century,(1) when saltpeter was used for the oxidation of the ore. Around the middle of the century an improvement was made in the process by the introduction of the use of potassium carbonate, and by passing air over the mixture(8) while the latter was being heated for purposes of oxidation. Since then, many other methods have been tried, involving the following features:

- (a) The substitution of alkali-earth compounds for the alkali carbonate used during the roasting process;
- (b) the substitution of other cheaper alkali salts for the alkali carbonate;
- (c) the dilution of the roasting mixture in order to effect more complete oxidation by air, by the addition of fairly inert materials;
- (d) the decrease of the time and the increase of efficiency of roasting by improvements in mechanical features; and
- (e) the decrease of the temperature of roasting.

A few examples may be given to illustrate these variations. In Jacquelin's process(9) the ore was roasted with lime in a reverberatory furnace at bright-red heat for 8 to 9 hours, and with ten to twelve rabblings during the roasting process. The

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roast was decomposed with sulphuric acid to convert the insoluble calcium chromate into the soluble calcium bichromate. The solution was then heated with an emulsion of chalk to neutralize the excess acid and to precipitate the ferric salts together with the alumina and magnesia contained in the ore. After filtering, a solution of potassium carbonate was added to the filtrate to convert the calcium bichromate into potassium bichromate, and the calcium carbonate was separated by filtration. The potassium bichromate solution was then crystallized in the usual way. By this method the amount of alkali carbonate required to produce the dichromate was reduced to a minimum; or, lead chromate could be obtained without the use of the alkali salt. The great drawback of this method is that the recovery of bichromate is low.

In one of Tilghman's patents(14) potash feldspar or alkali sulphate was mixed with the ore and quicklime and the mixture roasted. In another patent potassium sulphate or potassium chloride was used in the roasting mixture together with steam in the roasting atmosphere.

In Swindell's patent(12) calcium or sodium chloride was used together with steam.

Gorman(7) roasted a mixture of ore and lime at a high temperature, then added potash, soda, or potassium sulphate and roasted again at 600° C.

In Römer's patent(10) soda was substituted for one equivalent of potash in the roasting mixture, and after sulphuric acid was added to the concentrated liquor, the potassium bichromate was precipitated, leaving the sodium sulphate in solution.

Some catalysts or diluents, such as coke and the oxides of manganese, copper, and iron were also used. Thus Wise(16) replaced a large proportion of the lime in the usual ore-lime-soda mixture by ferric oxide and magnesium oxide obtained as residue of a previous calcine. Drefahl(3) used a mixture of ore, lime, soda, and coke or charcoal in the ratio of 1: 1.10: 0.86: 0.67, and blast-roasted in a sintering roaster.

Lime was also replaced by such substances as bauxite(11) or dolomite,(18) and the Russian workers,(17) working with Ural chromite of 40 per cent chromic oxide, obtained almost complete extraction with a mixture of ore, soda, and dolomite in the ratio of 1: 0.8: 0.8.

To prevent any loss of chromium, various patents have been taken in which the residue from the calcine which still con-

tains undecomposed ore together with the iron oxide, alumina, and magnesia, is mixed with fresh ore.(4)

Various patents have been issued for improvements in mechanical features. In Fuller's patent(5) the ore-lime-soda mixture was roasted in an automatically rabbled furnace by allowing the mixture to travel first through a zone of temperature higher than the soda fusion point and then through a zone of temperature lower than the fusion point. In Gibb's process(6) the addition of lime was altogether eliminated by roasting the ore-soda mixture in a revolving furnace at a temperature sufficient to keep the charge fluid.

Zahn and Company(19) claim certain advantages in roasting first with insufficient soda, and after leaching the calcine, roasting again with more lime and soda.

PRESENT PRACTICE IN THE MANUFACTURE OF BICHROMATE

The usual procedure in the manufacture of bichromate may be briefly described thus:(15) The ore is dried by waste furnace gases, crushed in a jaw crusher, then ground in a ball mill with a 130-mesh discharge, and stored in bins. From bins of ore as well as of the ground lime and soda ash, measured quantities of each are weighed and thoroughly mixed, first in a ball mill and finally in a Krupp mixer. The mixture is then roasted in a reverberatory furnace heated to from 800° to 1200° C. A mechanical furnace which has a revolving circular hearth of 6 meters diameter has a capacity of 2,500 kilograms and requires eight hours to roast.

The calcine is then transferred to a battery of iron tanks provided with false filter bottoms and leached with hot water, the most concentrated liquor being pumped to another tank filled with fresh calcine, until a 30° to 40° Be liquor is obtained. As calcium chromate is frequently present in the liquor, the latter is first transformed to alkali salt by addition of a measured quantity of the alkali carbonate and heating at a temperature higher than 100° C.(4) After filtration the liquor is concentrated to 50° Be, from which sodium chromate may be crystallized. Or the concentrated liquor may be treated with sulphuric acid, the sodium sulphate which crystallizes out then being removed by centrifuging or filtering by suction, and the bichromate liquor finally crystallized and dried, or dehydrated by heating in cast-iron vessels and crystallized from the molten state.

In the United States only high-grade chromite is used for roasting, probably because results of investigations show that with low-grade ores the percentage recovery based on the chromic oxide content of the ore is low. Thus Doerner's report(2) shows that low-grade ore requires more reagents to effect adequate conversion to chromate, and that less of the chromate is extracted by water leaching than with a high-grade ore—a 56 per cent chrome ore requiring 200 per cent lime and 140 per cent sodium carbonate to give a 97 per cent extraction, and a 43 per cent chrome ore requiring 200 per cent lime and 140 per cent sodium carbonate to give only 92 per cent extraction.

Our experiments show that with Philippine chromite of 33 or 37 per cent chromic oxide content only 85 to 90 per cent sodium carbonate is necessary, much less lime (10 to 25 per cent) is needed, and the water extraction can be raised to as high as 100 per cent.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE AND RESULTS

The ore used for investigation was the Masinloc ore from Zambales Province, owned by Consolidated Mines, Incorporated. Its chemical composition is given in Table 1.

TABLE 1.—Composition of chrome ore from Masinloc, Zambales Province.

Constituents.	Ore.	
	Crude.	Concentrated.
	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
SiO ₂	5.6	1.8
Fe ₂ O ₃	17.9	18.5
Al ₂ O ₃ (by difference)	26.2	25.9
Cr ₂ O ₃	33.5	37.6
MgO	16.8	16.2
CaO	trace	trace
Ti	trace	trace
V	trace	trace

This ore is closely associated with peridotite or pyroxenite intrusions, and occurs in lenticular masses of varying size apparently accumulated near the border of the peridotite intrusions. The ore mineral shows a crystalline texture usually of coarse, but sometimes of fine, grain, although massive or amorphous textures have also been observed. Conservative estimates of the tonnage of the chromite reserves in Masinloc show that there are at least 8,000,000 tons of this ore available.

In view of this abundance of the ore and of its fairly low chromic oxide content which tends to confine its usefulness to refractory purposes only, studies were made to determine whether Masinloc ore can compete with higher grade ores in the world market. The present research is a part of the above general investigation, and has for its specific object the determination of the optimum conditions for roasting Masinloc chromite for bichromate manufacture.

The ore was first ground to -150 mesh, and 2 grams mixed thoroughly with different reagents before roasting. Both platinum and porcelain crucibles were used, the latter being just as good as platinum crucibles if used not more than three or four times. The temperature of the furnace was read with a pyrometer. After a definite time of roasting the calcine in the crucible was placed in about 100 cc of water, heated to boil, and filtered, this operation being repeated three or four times. The residue was diluted with water, dilute hydrochloric acid added, and the mixture heated to make soluble whatever hexavalent chromium may have been left. Both the water extract and the acid extract were assayed for their chromate content with a standard solution of sodium thiosulphate.

Table 2 shows the results of preliminary runs with unconcentrated ore. Experiments 1 to 4 show that with no lime and with the soda-ash (93.5 per cent pure) content varying from 50 to 100 per cent, when the temperature of roasting is about 1,000° C. there is complete fusion of the mixture and a consequent low recovery. The fact that the ore was completely attacked except in experiment 4, as shown by the complete solubility in hydrochloric acid solution of the residue from the calcine, would indicate that the chromic oxide in the ore was transformed into some other compound in which the chromium was not hexavalent. When 25 per cent lime is used (experiments 5 to 8) under conditions similar to those obtaining in experiments 1 to 4, greater recovery is obtained both in the water extract and in the total extract; also, fusion is not as complete. When 75 per cent lime is used (experiments 9 to 11), still higher recoveries are obtained from mixtures of 80 per cent sodium carbonate down, but a low recovery is obtained when 100 per cent soda ash is used. This relation is greatly magnified when 125 per cent lime is used (experiments 12 to 14). A comparison of the total recoveries in experiments 1 to 4 show that while with no lime the total recovery is a linear

function of the soda ash used, this relation also obtains when 25 per cent lime is used; above 25 per cent lime total recovery is almost the same, irrespective of the soda ash used; in fact, with a quantity of soda ash above 80 per cent the total recovery is even less than with a quantity of soda ash below 80 per cent.

In all the experiments cited, 5 per cent ferric oxide was used. The effect of this substance is shown in experiments 15 to 17. It is to be noted that when both lime and soda ash are used in quantities over 100 per cent, the iron oxide has the effect of increasing both the water recovery and the total recovery.

As Table 2 showed that a total recovery of over 90 per cent could be obtained by the use of a great quantity of lime and less soda ash, an attempt was made to use this type of combination under different conditions of temperature, time of roasting, and mode of exposure. Table 3 shows effects of these factors. It is evident from this table that while between 800 and 830° C. there is no fusion of the mixture, the rate of oxidation is fairly low and the time of roasting has to be increased; on the other hand, there is no great advantage gained by a temperature much higher than 850° C., since both the water recovery and total recovery at 1000° C. are less than the corresponding recoveries at 850° C. Also, while at temperatures below 850° C. the rate of oxidation is low, at 850° C. and above the oxidation reaches its maximum between three and six hours.

From experiments 15 to 19 quenching seems to have the effect of accelerating oxidation, but, as will be shown later, produces a mechanical loss in chromate recovery. It will be observed that a sodium-carbonate content equivalent to 70 per cent of the ore gives as much total recovery as an equivalent to 80 per cent, although the water extract is slightly less in the 70 per cent soda-ash mixture.

With these mixtures containing 70 to 80 per cent soda ash in no case was the water recovery higher than 88 per cent, nor the total recovery higher than 95.5 per cent. Considering that in order to convert the water-soluble chromate into the soluble form, either further addition of soda ash to the residue from the water extraction is necessary, or carbon dioxide has to be passed through the suspension of the residue, no great advantage would be gained by the use of very much lime and a comparatively small amount of soda ash, over a small amount of lime and a slightly greater quantity of soda ash, as is shown by experiment 5 in Table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Preliminary experiments showing the effects of temperature and of varying quantities of lime, soda ash, and ferric oxide on the roasting of Masinloc chromite.*

[Samples were placed in the furnace only when the temperature was about 850°C.]

[Unconcentrated chromite, 2 grams.]

Experiment.	Time. Hours.	Lime. g.	Soda ash. g.	Ferric oxide. g.	Average tempera- ture. °C.	Recovery.		Remarks.
						Water soluble. Per cent.	Hydrochlo- ric acid soluble. Per cent.	
1	3	0	2.0	0.1	^a 1000	89.5	trace	
2	3	0	1.6	0.1	1000	73.1	trace	
3	3	0	1.4	0.1	1000	66.0	trace	
4	3	0	1.0	0.1	1000	49.0	trace	
5	4	0.5	2.0	0.1	^a 1000	95.7	0.4	
6	4	0.5	1.4	0.1	1000	76.5	0.8	
7	4	0.5	1.2	0.1	1000	67.7	0.4	
8	4	0.5	1.0	0.1	1000	63.4	1.3	
9	3	1.5	2.0	0.1	930	86.7	3.7	
10	3	1.5	1.6	0.1	930	87.4	4.2	
11	3	1.5	1.2	0.1	930	77.3	5.7	
12	3	3.5	2.0	0.1	960	66.3	18.7	
13	3	2.5	1.6	0.1	960	86.8	7.5	
14	3	2.5	1.4	0.1	960	83.8	10.5	
15	3	2.5	1.2	0.1	960	80.5	9.0	
16	3	2.5	1.0	0.1	960	77.5	9.0	
17	3	2.8	2.8	0	^a 1000	76.2	14.1	
18	3	2.8	2.8	0.2	1000	79.2	14.1	
19	3	2.8	2.8	0.4	1000	89.0	11.2	

^a Approximate.Caking in all. Ore completely at-
tacked except in experiment 4.Soft caking in all. Ore completely
attacked.

Ore completely attacked.

Fusion. Ore completely attacked.

Ore not completely attacked. Fusion.

Do.

TABLE 3.—Effect of the mode of exposure of lime with varying amounts of soda ash on the roasting of Masinloc chromite.

[Unconcentrated chromite, 2 grams.]

Experiment.	Time. Hours.	Lime. g.	Soda ash. g.	Average temperature. °C.	Recovery.				Remarks.
					Water soluble.	Hydrochloric acid soluble.	Total.	Residue.	
					Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	g.	
1	2.0	2.8	1.6	1000	77.5	9.2	86.7	---	All crucibles were placed when furnace was at 850 °C. Ore completely attacked. All mixtures fused.
2	4.0	2.8	1.6	1000	82.0	11.1	93.1	---	
3	6.0	2.8	1.6	1000	85.3	7.5	92.8	---	
4	4.0	2.8	1.6	1000	81.5	11.9	93.4	---	
5	^a 6.0	2.8	1.6	1000	86.2	5.2	91.4	---	
6	3.1	2.8	1.6	1000	86.3	5.3	91.6	---	In all cases there was a white yellowish layer over a green layer. Ore completely attacked. All mixtures not fused.
7	1.1	2.8	1.6	1080	82.4	6.8	89.2	---	
8	1.1	3.6	1.6	1030	82.8	5.1	87.9	---	
9	2.0	2.8	1.6	850	82.8	9.7	92.5	---	
10	4.0	2.8	1.6	850	88.0	7.5	95.5	---	
11	6.0	2.8	1.6	850	87.0	6.6	93.6	---	Two layers not distinct. Ore not completely attacked. All mixtures not fused.
12	^a 6.0	2.8	1.6	850	84.0	6.9	90.9	---	
13	4.0	2.8	1.4	850	84.7	8.7	93.4	---	
14	3.8	2.8	1.4	860	86.0	7.4	93.4	---	
15	2.0	2.8	1.6	800	38.7	16.8	55.5	0.62	
16	4.0	2.8	1.6	810	41.0	20.8	61.8	0.37	Two layers not distinct. Ore not completely attacked. All mixtures not fused.
17	^b 6.0	2.8	1.6	830	53.9	7.9	61.8	0.06	
18	4.0	2.8	1.4	810	45.0	15.8	60.3	0.39	
19	^b 6.0	2.8	1.4	830	62.0	9.5	71.5	0.07	

^a Left overnight in furnace.^b Quenched once after 4 hours.

Accordingly attention was focused on the possibilities of using only a little lime and amounts of soda ash greater than 80 per cent of the ore—a plotting of the soda-ash-water recovery curve from experiments in Table 2 indicating that over 95 per cent water extraction is possible with 90 to 95 per cent soda ash. In previous experiments the difficulty appeared to be due to a deficiency in oxidation as a result of the fusion of the mixture. If this be so, the difficulty can be overcome by a comparatively low temperature exposure and by the addition of substances that would create a porous structure in the roasted mixture. Accordingly several substances, like sawdust, bagasse, iron oxide, and rice hulls were tried.

Table 4 shows the effect of the addition of these substances to roasting mixtures of varying lime and soda ash contents. Experiments 3, 6, and 19 show that in a mixture of 25 per cent lime and 95 per cent soda ash the addition of 50 per cent rice hull, ground to —60 mesh, will produce a water extraction of 97 per cent or over, while without rice hulls an extraction of only 90 per cent is possible (Experiment 1). If lime is completely eliminated, however, water extraction gives only 90 per cent recovery as shown by Experiment 12 (Table 4). The addition of 30 per cent or even 15 per cent instead of 50 per cent rice hulls has possibilities, as is shown by Experiments 20 and 21. Sawdust and bagasse, ground to —60 mesh, also seem to be very effective, as Experiments 22, 25, and 30 show; coked rice hull, bagasse coke, and bagasse ash, however, are not effective, as shown by Experiments 10, 17, and 18.

The use of 15 per cent lime is evidently sufficient. With this amount no carbonaceous agent is necessary to give a 100 per cent water recovery (Experiment 39) while amounts of iron oxide from 10 to 20 per cent or 25 to 75 per cent sawdust do not lower the recovery (Experiments 32 to 38). It is thus clear that while carbonaceous agents play an important rôle in the roasting of chromite, the most important factor is the lime concentration of the roasting mixture.

In these experiments and in others to follow optimum conditions of recovery are always associated with calcines which are porous and greenish.

The case of roasting the concentrated ore is only slightly different. Tables 5 and 6 show the recovery of chromium as chromate under different conditions of soda-ash content, liming, and diluting agents. Experiments 1, 7, and 15 (Table 5)

TABLE 4.—Effect on the roasting of Masinloc chromite of small quantities of lime with varying quantities of soda ash and other substances.

[Unconcentrated chromite, 2 grams.]

[Samples placed in furnace when cold.]

Experiment.	Time. Hours.	Lime. g.	Soda ash. g.	Other reagents. g.	Average tempera- ture. °C.	Recovery.			Residue.	Remarks.
						Water soluble.	Hydro- chloric acid.	Total.		
1	4	0.5	1.9	None	930	Per cent. 90.2	Per cent. 1.5	Per cent. 91.7	g. 0.12	
2	4	0.5	1.0	Rice husk	930	63.0	1.2	64.2	0.62	Not completely fused.
3	4	0.5	1.9	1.0 ground lpa (-60m)	930	97.5	0.2	97.7	0.11	All quenched 2 hours before comple-
4	4	1.5	1.9	None	930	43.6	21.6	65.2	0.42	tion.
5	4	1.5	1.0	do.	930	63.4	9.7	73.1	0.20	
6	4	0.5	1.9	1.0 ground lpa (-60m)	930	97.0	0.3	97.3	0.16	
7	4	0.5	1.5	do.	930	81.1	0.4	81.5	0.56	
8	4	0.5	1.0	do.	930	52.3	0.7	53.0	1.11	Melted on sides of platinum.
9	4	0.5	0.5	do.	930	31.2	2.8	33.5	1.33	Quenched 2 hours before completion.
10	4	0.5	1.9	1.0 coked lpa (-60m)	930	63.8	11.6	75.4	0.53	
11	4	0.5	1.9	0.5 ground lpa (-60m)	930	93.5	0.6	94.1	0.20	
12	3.8	0	1.9	1.0 lpa (-60m)	860	90.0	0.2	90.2		
13	3.8	0	1.5	do.	860	67.8	0.2	68.0		
14	3.8	0.5	1.5	do.	860	79.8	0.1	79.9		
15	3.8	1.0	1.5	do.	860	52.3	15.5	67.8		No fusion except in experiment 16.
16	3.8	1.5	1.5	do.	860	40.3	33.3	73.6		Quenched 2 hours before comple-
17	3.8	0.5	1.9	1.0 bagasse coke	860	40.3	33.3	73.6		tion.
18	3.8	0.5	1.9	1.0 bagasse ash	860	91.0	0.2	91.2		
19	3.8	0.5	1.9	1.0 ground lpa (-60m)	860	63.2	0.1	63.3		
20	3.8	0.5	1.9	0.6 lpa (-60m)	870	98.0	trace	98.0		Hard cake.
21	3.8	0.5	1.9	0.3 lpa (-60m)	870	100.0	trace	100.0		Less hard cake.
22	3.8	0.5	1.9	0.3 lpa (-60m)	870	100.0	trace	100.0		Soft, and porous cake.
23	3.8	0.5	1.9	1.0 sawdust (-60m)	870	97.0	1.4	98.4		Do.
24	3.8	0.5	1.9	0.3 sawdust (-60m)	870	96.6	1.5	98.1		Do.
25	3.8	0.5	1.9	1.0 bagasse (-60m)	880	100.0	trace	100.0		Do.

25	3.8	0.5	1.9	1.0 sawdust (-60m)	870	98.5	1.3	100.3	Dark green, porous.
26	3.8	0.5	1.5	2.0 sawdust (-60m)	870	85.8	1.7	87.5	Brown, porous.
27	3.8	0.5	1.5	1.5 sawdust (-60m)	870	87.5	1.4	88.9	Do.
28	3.8	0.5	1.5	1.0 sawdust (-60m)	870	87.5	0.8	88.3	Do.
29	3.8	0.5	1.5	2.0 sawdust (-60m)	870	60.2	1.4	61.6	Do.
30	3.8	0.3	1.9	1.0 sawdust (-60m)	870	100.0	trace	100.0	Dark green, porous.
31	3.8	0.3	1.7	do.	870	91.2	0.1	91.3	Do.
32	4.0	0.7	1.8	do.	880	79.0	7.9	86.9	Not so porous, yellow scum on top.
33	4.0	0.3	1.9	0.2 ferric oxide	880	100.0	trace	100.0	Porous, greenish brown.
34	4.0	0.3	1.9	0.4 ferric oxide	880	100.0	trace	100.0	Do.
35	4.0	0.3	1.8	1.0 sawdust (-60m)	880	100.0	trace	100.0	Do.
36	4.0	0.3	1.9	1.5 sawdust (-60m)	880	100.0	trace	100.0	Very porous, greenish brown.
37	4.0	0.3	1.9	1.0 sawdust (-60m)	880	100.0	trace	100.0	Porous, greenish brown.
38	4.0	0.3	1.9	0.5 sawdust (-60m)	880	100.0	trace	100.0	Do.
39	4.0	0.3	1.9	None	880	100.0	trace	100.0	Do.

TABLE 5.—Effect on the roasting of concentrated Masinloc chromite of small quantities of lime, with varying quantities of soda ash and other reagents.

[Concentrated chromite, 2 grams.]

[Exposure, 3.8 hours.]

Experiment.	Lime.	Soda ash.	Other reagents.	Average temperature.	Recovery.			Remarks.
					Water soluble.	Hydro-chloric acid soluble.	Total.	
				°C.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	
1	g.	g.	g.	880	93.2	0.2	93.4	Porous, dark green.
2	0.5	1.9	1.0 ipa (-20m)	880	51.3	5.8	57.1	Fused, yellow.
3	0.5	1.9	do	880	72.4	0.8	73.2	Do.
4	0.5	1.9	1.0 sawdust (-60m)	880	93.4	2.7	96.1	Porous, dark brown.
5	0.5	1.9	0.2 sawdust (-60m)	880	56.5	2.0	58.5	Fused, yellow.
6	0.5	2.1	1.0 ipa (-20m)	870	93.4	0.5	93.9	Porous, dark brown.
7	0.5	1.9	do	870	93.2	0.5	93.7	Do.
8	0.5	1.5	do	870	81.0	0.5	81.5	Porous, brown.
9	0.5	2.1	0.5 ipa (-20m)	870	72.6	2.8	75.4	Fused, yellow.
10	0.5	2.1	0.5 bagasse (-60m)	870	54.1	13.2	67.3	Do.
11	0.5	2.1	1.0 sawdust (-60m)	870	94.0	3.7	97.7	Do.
12	0.5	2.1	0.5 sawdust (-60m)	870	61.6	0.9	62.5	Do.
13	* 1.0	2.1	1.0 ipa (-20m)	870	45.2	0.6	45.8	Do.
14	0.5	1.9	1.5 sawdust (-60m)	870	93.2	3.4	96.6	Porous, dark brown.
15	0.5	1.9	1.0 sawdust (-60m)	870	95.2	2.2	97.4	Do.
16	0.5	1.9	0.5 sawdust (-60m)	870	85.8	3.5	89.3	Fused, yellow.
17	0.5	2.5	1.0 sawdust (-60m)	880	91.0	0.8	91.8	Do.
18	0.5	1.9	do	880	90.0	2.2	92.2	Do.
19	0.3	1.9	do	880	97.0	3.0	100.0	Porous, greenish.
20	1.0	2.5	do	880	75.5	4.6	80.1	Fused, greenish.
21	1.0	2.0	do	880	70.1	6.1	76.2	Do.
22	1.0	1.5	do	880	70.5	9.8	80.3	Do.

23	0.3	1.9	do.	870	91.0	trace	91.0	Porous, dark green
24	0.3	1.7	do.	870	87.0	0.9	87.9	Porous, brown.
25	0.3	0.5	1.0 sawdust (-60m) + 1.0 sodium sulphate	870	25.8	0.3	26.1	Porous, dark green.
26	0.3	1.0	do.	870	9.3	2.2	11.5	Porous, yellow.
27	0	1.9	1.0 sawdust (-60m) + 1.0 Sienna ^b	870	83.5	trace	83.5	Porous, brown.
28	0	1.7	do.	870	75.8	trace	75.8	Do.

^a CaCO₃.

^b Laboratory Sienna.

^c There was very little airing.

TABLE 5.—Effect on the roasting of concentrated Masinloc chromite of varying lime and soda ash, other conditions remaining constant.

[Concentrated chromite, 2 grams.]

Experiment.	Time. Hours.	Lime. g.	Soda ash. g.	Sawdust (—60m). g.	Average temper- ature. °C.	Recovery.			Remarks.
						Water soluble. Per cent.	Hydrochlo- ric acid soluble. Per cent.	Total Per cent.	
1	3.8	2.5	1.0	0.5	890	76.9	6.5	81.8	Fused, brown-yellow.
2	3.8	1.5	1.0	0.5	890	66.6	9.2	75.8	Fused, yellow.
3	3.8	0.5	1.0	0.5	890	48.4	10.3	58.7	Do.
4	3.8	0.3	1.0	0.5	890	52.6	3.8	56.4	Porous, dark brown.
5	3.8	0	1.0	0.5	890	44.7	trace	44.7	Do.
6	3.8	2.5	1.5	0.5	890	78.4	18.0	91.4	Fused, yellow.
7	3.8	1.5	1.5	0.5	890	60.7	18.7	79.4	Do.
8	3.8	0.5	1.5	0.5	890	61.5	10.3	71.8	Do.
9	3.8	0.3	1.5	0.5	890	74.4	4.2	78.6	Porous, brown.
10	3.8	0	1.5	0.5	890	66.4	trace	66.4	Do.
11	3.8	2.5	1.9	0.5	890	55.7	24.2	79.9	Porous, yellow.
12	3.8	1.5	1.9	0.5	890	66.5	21.0	87.9	Fused, yellow.
13	3.8	0.5	1.9	0.5	890	68.1	11.7	77.8	Do.
14	3.8	0.3	1.9	0.5	890	87.8	1.8	89.6	Porous, yellow.
15	3.8	0	1.9	0.5	890	80.7	trace	80.7	Porous, brown.
16	4.0	0.5	1.9	0.5	880	79.5	2.4	81.9	Fused, yellow.
17	4.0	0.4	1.9	0.5	880	76.0	4.0	80.0	Do.
18	4.0	0.3	1.9	0.5	880	88.5	5.9	94.4	Do.
19	4.0	0.2	1.9	0.5	880	95.9	1.7	97.6	Porous, dark brown.
20	4.0	0.1	1.9	0.5	880	88.0	trace	93.0	Do.
21	4.0	0	1.9	0.5	880	88.8	trace	88.8	Do.
22	4.0	0.3	1.9	1.0	880	93.5	2.1	95.6	Do.
23	4.0	0.3	1.9	1.5	880	95.0	0.6	95.6	Do.

24	4.0	0.3	1.9	0	880	72.3	2.7	75.0	Fused, yellow.
25	4.0	3.25	1.9	0.5	880	80.6	10.5	91.1	Porous, greenish yellow.
26	4.0	1.5	1.5	0.5	880	82.5	15.0	77.5	Fused, yellow.
27	4.0	0.5	1.5	0.5	880	66.0	3.9	69.9	Do.
28	4.0	0.3	1.5	0.5	880	72.3	8.2	80.5	Porous, dark brown.
29	4.0	0.15	1.5	0.5	880	76.8	0.6	77.4	Do.
30	4.0	0	1.5	0.5	880	72.0	trace	72.0	Porous, brown.
31	4.0	0.3	1.5	1.5	880	80.6	0.9	81.5	Porous, dark brown.
32	4.0	0.2	2.0	1.0	880	94.5	2.5	97.0	Porous, greenish.
33	4.0	0.2	1.9	1.0	880	97.3	0.9	98.2	Do.
34	4.0	0.2	1.8	1.0	880	96.7	1.1	97.8	Do.
35	4.0	0.2	1.7	1.0	880	91.8	0.9	92.2	Do.
36	4.0	0.2	1.9	0.5	880	98.5	3.5	97.0	Not so porous, greenish.
37	4.0	0.2	1.9	0	880	81.0	9.3	90.3	Least porous, greenish.
38	4.0	0.2	1.9	1.5	880	95.9	1.3	97.2	Very porous, greenish.
39	4.0	0.2	1.9	0.2	880	93.0	0.9	93.9	Not so porous, greenish brown.

show that with 25 per cent lime and 95 per cent soda ash, 93 per cent water recovery may be obtained with 50 per cent of ground rice hulls (—20 mesh); and 93 to 95 per cent recovery when 50 per cent sawdust is used (Experiments 4 and 15). No advantage is obtained by the use of 105 to 125 per cent of soda ash with the same amount of lime and rice hulls or sawdust (Experiments 6 and 17). Calcium carbonate apparently cannot take the place of lime (Experiment 13), and the addition of sodium sulphate to the roast mixture does not give good recovery (Experiments 25 and 26). "Sienna" prepared from the residue of a completely roasted ore seems to offer no advantage, probably due to the fact that no lime was added to the roasting mixture (Experiments 27 and 28). From Table 6 it appears that the best lime content is around 10 per cent (Experiment 19), and that more than 25 per cent sawdust is necessary for complete recovery of chromium (Experiment 23). This finding is verified by Experiments 33 and 38, where 50 per cent sawdust gives 97 per cent water recovery and 75 per cent sawdust gives 96 per cent recovery. It would also appear from experiment 34 that 90 per cent soda ash is sufficient for a 97 per cent extraction.

Before combining all the optimum conditions for the highest recovery of chromate, there still remains the study of the relative values of different reagents for diluting or other purposes. The substances tested were sawdust (—60 mesh), rice hulls (—20 mesh), bagasse (—60 mesh), flour, and iron oxide. Table 7 shows the effect of different quantities of these reagents on the recovery of chromate from roasting mixtures of concentrated chromite under optimum conditions of lime and soda ash. In these experiments the air supply was decreased. Rice hulls appear to be the best catalytic agent and give optimum recovery when used at 15 per cent. Sawdust and flour behave almost identically, yielding optimum recovery when used at about 50 per cent. Bagasse and iron oxides are the least effective diluting reagents, optimum recovery being obtained at 5 to 15 per cent concentration of these reagents.

We are now ready to determine water soluble recoveries with the optimum conditions of temperature 890° C., with sawdust clinkering agent constant, and with varying conditions of lime and soda ash. Table 8 gives the recoveries from unconcentrated ore and Table 9 gives those from concentrated ore. Text figs.

TABLE 7.—*Effect of catalytic agents on the roasting of concentrated Masinloc chromite, other conditions remaining constant.*

[Concentrated chromite, 2 grams; lime, 0.2 grams; soda ash, 1.9 grams.]

[Exposed 4 hours. Average temperature, 880°C.]

Experiment.	Other reagents.	Recovery water solu- ble.	Remarks.
	<i>g.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
1.-----	None.-----	85.8	Fused, dark green with yellow.
2.-----	0.5 sawdust (—60m)-----	91.8	Not very porous, dark brown.
3.-----	1.0 sawdust (—60m)-----	93.6	Porous, dark brown.
4.-----	1.5 sawdust (—60m)-----	94.0	Do.
5.-----	2.0 sawdust (—60m)-----	93.5	Do.
6.-----	0.1 rice hulls (—20m)-----	92.6	Do.
7.-----	0.3 rice hulls (—20m)-----	96.0	Do.
8.-----	0.5 rice hulls (—20m)-----	93.5	Do.
9.-----	1.0 rice hulls (—20m)-----	91.0	Porous, brown.
10.-----	1.5 rice hulls (—20m)-----	87.0	Do.
11.-----	2.0 rice hulls (—20m)-----	81.0	Do.
12.-----	0.3 bagasse (—60m)-----	92.2	Slight fusion on bottom, brown.
13.-----	0.5 bagasse (—60m)-----	91.3	Do.
14.-----	1.0 bagasse (—60m)-----	90.9	Do.
15.-----	1.5 bagasse (—60m)-----	91.3	Very porous, brown.
16.-----	0.5 flour-----	91.0	Not very porous, dark brown.
17.-----	1.0 flour-----	95.0	Slightly fused, dark brown.
18.-----	1.5 flour-----	93.5	Porous, dark brown.
19.-----	2.0 flour-----	91.5	Do.
20.-----	0.1 ferric oxide-----	92.7	Slightly porous, dark brown.
21.-----	0.2 ferric oxide-----	91.9	Porous, dark brown.
22.-----	0.8 ferric oxide-----	89.6	Porous, brown.
23.-----	1.5 ferric oxide-----	85.5	Do.

1 and 2 show the relation between water recovery and lime concentration for unconcentrated and concentrated ores respectively, and text figs. 3 and 4 show the relation between water recovery and soda ash concentration for the same samples.

From tables 8 and 9 and from text figs. 3 and 4 the poor results obtained in our preliminary experiments (Table 2) on the effect of varying soda ash in the fusion mixture can readily be understood. While the curves for both unconcentrated and concentrated ores are similar in character, a similarity which indicates that the ore actually possesses these characteristics, the curves for the different lime contents vary so greatly that at first glance they give the impression of error in manipulation or determination.

The case is different when the effect of varying lime content is studied (text figs. 1 and 2). Here the curves for different soda ash contents are similar in character, and they all point to the same maximum point of water recovery—0.45 to 0.50

TABLE 8.—*Effect of lime on the roasting of unconcentrated Masinloc chromite at different concentrations of soda ash and at the optimum concentration of sawdust.*

[Unconcentrated chromite, 2 grams; sawdust (— 60 m), 1 gram.]

[Exposure, 4 hours.]

Experiment.	Lime.	Soda ash.	Average temperature.	Recovery water soluble.	Remarks.
	g.	g.	°C.	Per cent.	
1.....	0	1.9	890	94.6	Porous, brownish green.
2.....	0.1	1.9	890	98.8	Do.
3.....	0.2	1.9	890	100.0	Do.
4.....	0.3	1.9	890	100.0	Do.
5.....	0.4	1.9	890	100.0	Porous, green.
6.....	0.5	1.9	890	100.0	Do.
7.....	0.7	1.9	890	81.1	Fused, yellow top.
8.....	1.0	1.9	890	79.8	Do.
9.....	1.5	1.9	890	72.2	Do.
10.....	2.5	1.9	890	53.7	Do.
11.....	3.5	1.9	890	59.0	Porous, yellow top.
12.....	0	1.8	890	91.4	Porous, brownish green.
13.....	0.2	1.8	890	98.0	Do.
14.....	0.4	1.8	890	100.0	Do.
15.....	0.5	1.8	890	100.0	Do.
16.....	0.7	1.8	890	91.8	Do.
17.....	1.0	1.8	890	77.0	Fused, yellow top.
18.....	1.5	1.8	890	72.6	Do.
19.....	2.5	1.8	890	62.0	Porous, yellow top.
20.....	3.5	1.8	890	66.5	Do.
21.....	0.45	1.7	890	96.5	Porous, brownish green.
22.....	0	1.6	900	80.8	Porous, brown.
23.....	0.1	1.6	900	81.1	Do.
24.....	0.2	1.6	900	86.8	Porous, brownish green.
25.....	0.3	1.6	900	90.0	Do.
26.....	0.4	1.6	900	90.8	Do.
27.....	0.5	1.6	900	91.1	Do.
28.....	0.7	1.6	900	85.5	Porous, yellow dots.
29.....	1.0	1.6	900	59.6	Fused, yellow top.
30.....	1.5	1.6	900	59.6	Do.
31.....	2.5	1.6	900	73.5	Porous, yellow top.
32.....	3.5	1.6	900	72.0	Do.
33.....	0	1.0	900	47.8	Porous, brownish green.
34.....	0.2	1.0	900	49.6	Do.
35.....	0.5	1.0	900	58.9	Porous, yellow dots.
36.....	0.7	1.0	900	65.0	Do.
37.....	1.0	1.0	900	73.0	Do.
38.....	2.0	1.0	900	70.6	Fused, yellow top.
39.....	3.5	1.0	900	69.2	Porous, yellow dots.
40.....	0	0.5	900	30.0	Porous, brownish green.
41.....	0.2	0.5	900	28.5	Do.
42.....	0.5	0.5	900	37.3	Porous, green.
43.....	1.0	0.5	900	40.6	Do.
44.....	3.5	0.5	900	42.7	Porous, green, white dots.
45.....	4.0	2.8	900	53.5	Fused, yellow.

TABLE 9.—*Effect of lime on the roasting of concentrated Masinloc chromite at different concentrations of soda ash and at the optimum concentration of sawdust.*

[Concentrated chromite, 2 grams; sawdust (—60 m), 1 gram.]

[Average temperature, 890°C.; exposure, 4 hours.]

Experiment.	Lime.	Soda ash.	Recovery, water soluble.	Remarks.
	<i>g.</i>	<i>g.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	
1.....	0	1.9	78.4	Porous, brown with yellow dots.
2.....	0.1	1.9	95.8	Porous, dark green.
3.....	0.2	1.9	98.7	Do.
4.....	0.3	1.9	94.4	Fairly porous, dark green.
5.....	0.4	1.9	82.0	Fused, yellow top.
6.....	0.5	1.9	77.9	Do.
7.....	0.7	1.9	81.3	Do.
8.....	1.0	1.9	80.2	Do.
9.....	1.5	1.9	71.4	Do.
10.....	2.5	1.9	73.4	Slightly porous, yellow top.
11.....	3.5	1.9	75.9	Do.
12.....	0	1.8	81.8	Porous, brown.
13.....	0.1	1.8	89.5	Do.
14.....	0.2	1.8	98.7	Porous, dark green.
15.....	0.3	1.8	86.1	Fused, yellow top.
16.....	0.4	1.8	68.5	Do.
17.....	0.5	1.8	76.6	Do.
18.....	0.7	1.8	82.1	Do.
19.....	1.0	1.8	71.8	Do.
20.....	1.5	1.8	78.0	Do.
21.....	2.5	1.8	86.7	Porous, brownish green.
22.....	3.5	1.8	86.7	Do.
23.....	0	1.6	76.8	Do.
24.....	0.1	1.6	90.5	Do.
25.....	0.2	1.6	90.5	Do.
26.....	0.3	1.6	88.6	Do.
27.....	0.4	1.6	70.0	Fused, yellow dots.
28.....	0.5	1.6	71.7	Do.
29.....	0.7	1.6	64.0	Do.
30.....	1.0	1.6	67.1	Do.
31.....	1.5	1.6	68.1	Do.
32.....	2.5	1.6	81.5	Porous, yellow dots.
33.....	3.5	1.6	84.2	Porous, brownish yellow.
34.....	0	1.0	47.5	Do.
35.....	0.2	1.0	55.4	Do.
36.....	0.5	1.0	59.3	Do.
37.....	0.7	1.0	66.8	Do.
38.....	1.0	1.0	70.0	Slightly fused, yellow top.
39.....	2.0	1.0	76.7	Porous, yellow top.
40.....	3.5	1.0	77.5	Porous, dark green.
41.....	0	0.5	34.0	Porous, brownish green
42.....	0.2	0.5	31.8	Do.
43.....	0.5	0.5	36.2	Do.
44.....	1.0	0.5	50.0	Do.
45.....	3.5	0.5	52.6	Do.

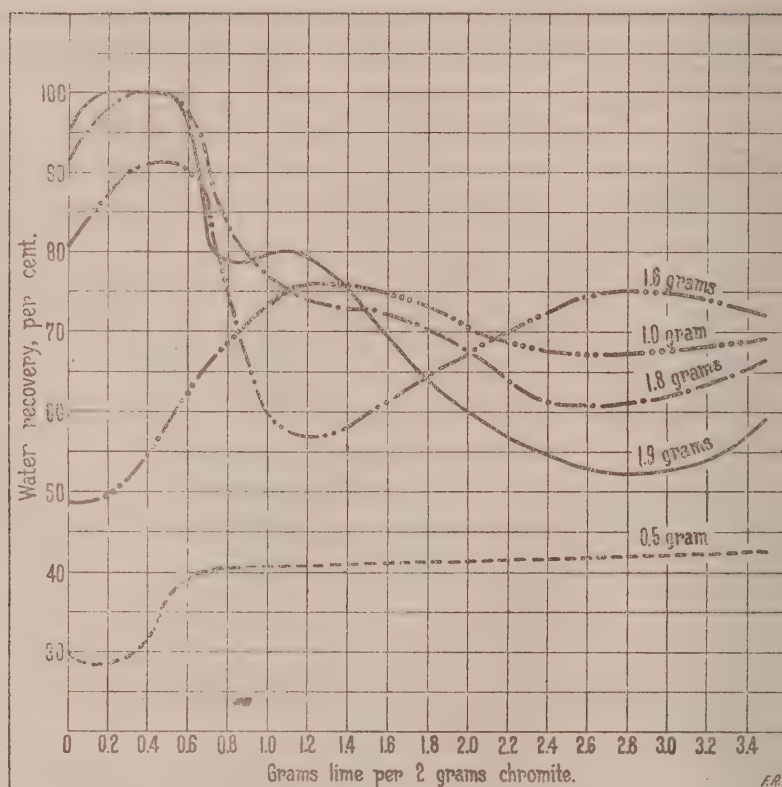


FIG. 1. Relation between quantity of lime used and water recovery from unconcentrated chromite with varying amounts of soda ash.

gram of lime per 2 grams of ore for the unconcentrated ore, and 0.15 to 0.20 gram of lime per 2 grams of ore for the concentrated ore, this maximum recovery being obtained only for mixtures containing more than 50 per cent soda ash, and minimum recovery for mixtures of 25 per cent soda ash or below. At no point up to 175 per cent lime is maximum recovery to be obtained except at the point already mentioned, and the failure of some workers to obtain a 100 per cent recovery by combining a great quantity of lime even with a great quantity of soda ash is now easy to understand.

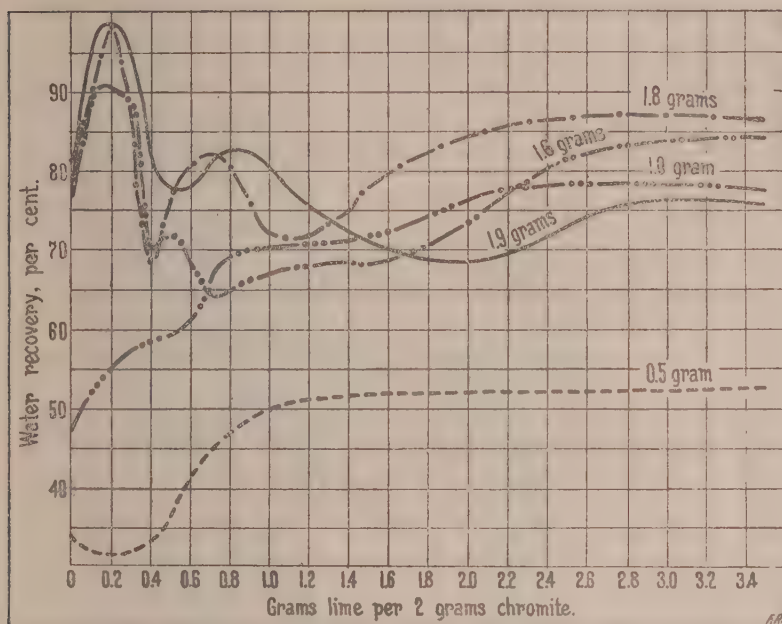


FIG. 2. Relation between quantity of lime used and water recovery from concentrated chromite with varying amounts of soda ash.

Moreover, among the chemical constituents of both unconcentrated and concentrated ores there is no ratio of the percentages of any constituent in the two samples that approximates 2 or 3, the ratio of the optimum limings for the unconcentrated over the concentrated sample, except that for silica. Or, to put it in another way, the ratios of the lime requirements to the silica contents are 4.5 for the unconcentrated ore and 5.5 for the concentrated ore, indicating that the effect of optimum liming is to take care of the silica of the ore, deficiency of liming resulting in part of the ore not being attacked, and excess in liming giving rise to complex calcium compounds of chromium which are not easily convertible into chromate. This finding is in agreement with Doerner's finding, in his experiments on the roasting of chromic oxide with sodium sulphate and lime, that silica is most detrimental to purity.

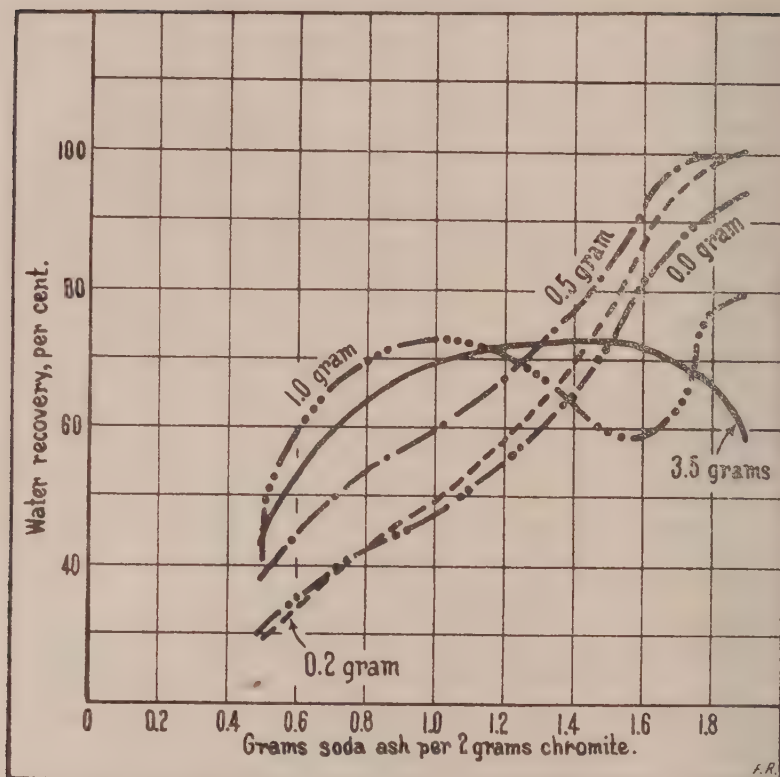


FIG. 3. Relation between quantity of soda ash used and water recovery from unconcentrated chromite with varying amounts of lime.

SUMMARY

For the efficient roasting of Masinloc chromite it has been shown that the percentages of lime, soda ash, and carbonaceous and diluting reagents are very important items to be considered. The optimum temperature of roasting is between 800 and 900° C. Of the carbonaceous substances, sawdust used at 50 per cent of the weight of chromite, or rice hulls used at 15 per cent of the weight of chromite, help to give the highest recovery of chromium as chromate. The optimum amount of soda ash (93.5 per cent purity) required for the highest recovery is between 85 and 90 per cent of the weight of the chromite, while the optimum amount of lime required is between 22 and 25 per cent for the unconcentrated chromite and around 10 per cent for the chromite concentrate. It is suggested that the

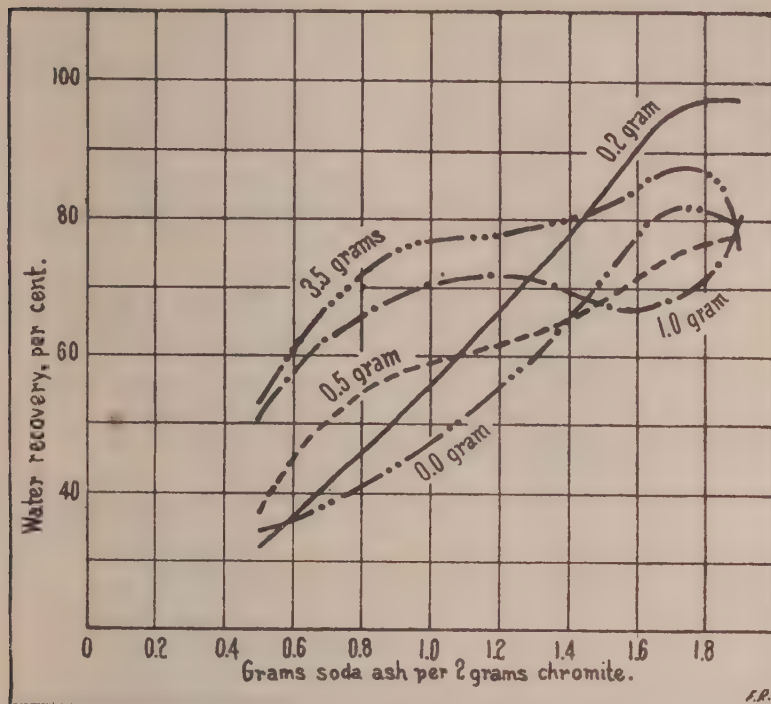


FIG. 4. Relation between the quantity of soda ash used and water recovery from concentrated chromite with varying amounts of lime.

exact lime requirements have something to do with the amount of silica in the chromite, about 5 times as much lime being required as there is silica. A theoretical study of the effects of lime on the chromite constituents, together with an inquiry into the nature of chemical interaction among the chromite, soda ash, and lime on the one hand, and the catalytic carbonaceous or diluting agents on the other, would be highly interesting and fruitful.

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ILLUSTRATIONS

TEXT FIGURES

- FIG. 1. Relation between quantity of lime used and water recovery from unconcentrated chromite with varying amounts of soda ash.
2. Relation between quantity of lime used and water recovery from concentrated chromite with varying amounts of soda ash.
3. Relation between quantity of soda ash used and water recovery from unconcentrated chromite with varying amounts of lime.
4. Relation between the quantity of soda ash used and water recovery from concentrated chromite with varying amounts of lime.

THE ILOKO ADJECTIVAL VOICE

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INTRODUCTION

I. VOICES IN ILOKO

There are two voices in Iloko, the substantival voice and the adjectival voice.

These two voices have been called, although very improperly, "active" and "passive." We have taken the liberty to give them new names, as has been explained before.¹

Each of these two voices has its own special prefixes, infixes, and suffixes.

The Iloko have a propensity to a verbal construction, called "passive" by most grammarians, which we call substantival. Instead of saying: "I do this," they will say: "This is my doing." This construction, however, is far from general, and it is necessary to know when this substantival construction has to be used, and when the regular active construction, which we call adjectival, is required.

We shall first say a word about these two constructions in themselves, so as to explain them as clearly as possible, and then something about their use.

I. 1. The adjectival construction or voice is formed by putting the Iloko term which represents the English subject (and which we shall call the subject in the course of this grammar), in the nominative, and the Iloko term which represents the English object (and which we shall call the object in the course of this grammar), if there is any, in the oblique.

2. The substantival construction or voice is formed by putting the Iloko term that represents the English subject, or the subject, in the genitive, and the Iloko term that translates the English object, or the object, in the nominative. For instance:

1. In the sentence: "I take rice," "I" is the subject, and "rice" is the object. The construction of this sentence will be adjectival.

¹ Iloko Substantives and Adjectives. *App. Anthropos* 26 (1931) 486-488.

tival in Iloko, and thus "I" will be in the nominative, and "rice" will be in the oblique.

Thus, in *Maṅgálaak ití bagás*, *ak* is the abbreviated form of the personal pronoun in the nominative, and *ití bagás*, as may be seen by the article, is in the oblique.

2. In the sentence: "I take the rice," "I" is the subject, and "the rice" is the object. The construction of this sentence will be substantival in Iloko, and thus, "I" will be in the genitive and "the rice" will be in the nominative.

Thus in *Aláek ti bagás*, *k* (for *ko*) is the possessive pronoun, which, of course, represents the genitive, and *ti bagás*, as may be seen by the article, is in the nominative.

3. *a.* The place of each member of the sentence is the same in both voices: First, the verb; then, the subject; and finally, the object, thus: *maṅgálaak ití bagás*, and *aláek ti bagás*.

NOTE 1. It may happen that the subject of the substantival voice is not a possessive, while its object is a personal pronoun; in this case the subject has to follow the verb immediately in the shape of a possessive of the 3d person, and the complete subject has to be repeated after the object.² Examples.

The boy laughs at me: *katawáannak ti ubíṅ*.

The old women whip us: *baútendakami dagiti bakét*.

b. When either the subject or the object has to be emphasized, it takes first place, and the other members of the sentence follow in the same order: First, the verb; then, the remaining term. In this case, the emphasized term is connected with the rest of the sentence by the ligature *ti*.³

siák ti maṅgála ití bagás: it is I who take rice.

ti bagás ti aláek: the rice is what I take.

NOTE 2. Sometimes it may be convenient to have either the subject (in both voices), or the object (in the substantival voice), precede the sentence; but this can only be known through frequent practice. In this case, whenever the subject precedes, it has to be repeated in the sentence in the shape of either a personal pronoun (adjectival voice) or a possessive (substantival voice) of the 3d person.⁴ Examples.

dagiti bakét agbaúta ití ubíṅ; the old women, they beat the child.

dagiti bakét baútenda ti ubíṅ: the old women, they beat the child.

ti ubíṅ baúten dagiti bakét: the child, the old women beat it.

II. A. As to the use of the two voices, it may be said in general that the adjectival construction is preferred whenever the stress is either on the action or on the one who does it, the

² To have and to be in Iloko. Philip. Journ. Sci. 66 (1938) 436.

³ Ibid., p. 424.

⁴ Ibid., p. 423.

subject, while the substantival construction is preferred whenever the stress is on the thing that has to be done, the object.

1. If the Iloko wants to say: I take rice, emphasizing the taking and leaving the term "rice" indeterminate, he will use the adjectival voice, thus:

mañgálaak ití bagás: I take rice (any rice).

2. If he wants to say: "I take rice," "I" and not somebody else, he will again use the adjectival voice:

siák ti mañgála ití bagás: it is I who take rice.

3. If he wants to say: "I take the rice," emphasizing "the rice" or making it entirely determinate, he will use the substantival voice:

ti bagás ti aláek: the rice is what I take.

aláek ti bagás: I take rice (not any kind of rice).

B. To explain more clearly what is meant by determinate and indeterminate:

1. If the Iloko wants to tell somebody to bring him rice, meaning any rice (indeterminate), in which case the action of taking is more important than the rice that has to be taken (the object), the stress being consequently on the action, he will use the adjectival voice and say:

mañgálaka ití bagás: take rice.

2. If he wants to tell somebody to bring him a certain kind of rice; that is, rice that has been spoken of before (determinate), in which case the rice that has to be taken (the object) is more important than the action of taking, the stress being consequently on the object, he will say:

aláem ti bagás: take the rice.

C. We may now draw the following rules, which are general, and without exceptions, and which cover the whole field of the Iloko verbal system:

1. The adjectival voice is used:

a. When there is no object (intransitive verbs); stress on the action. Examples:

uminámak

agtaráyka

nañgán

makaáñgeskami

makikúyogtayó

I drink.

you run.

he ate.

we can breathe.

let us go with him.

pusáen ti tinápay
agpaágasta
dumakkélkayo
matúrogda
kimmagát ti áso

the bread is being eaten by the cat.
 we go to the doctor.
 you grow.
 they sleep.
 the dog bit.

b. When the object follows the verb and is more or less indeterminate; stress on the action. Examples:

uminúmak ití danúm
agbásaka ití líbro
mañgarámidkami ití baláy
nakabírok ití bunéng
makisaóda ken Pédro
agpataráytayo ití kabáyo
sumakáyta ití báka
nagisúratkayo ití inbagák
umúli ití atépna
agsápul ni Juán ití pagiddaánna

I drink water (any kind of water).
 read a book.
 we make a house.
 he found a cutlass.
 they talk with Peter.
 let us make the horses run.
 let us mount a cow.
 did you write down what I said?
 he climbs on its roof.
 John looks for a place for him to lie down.

c. When the subject precedes the verb; stress on the subject. Examples:

siák ti uminúm
siká ti mapán
isú ti mayát
astno ti agsángit
ti áso ti nanángala ití kárne
awán ti nakabírok
ti danúm ti nanngdadáel
dakamí ti dimmakkél
dagiti napán idiáy Bontók ti na-
mapátay ití púsa

it is I who drink.
 you are the one who goes.
 he is the one who is willing.
 who weeps?
 the dog is the one who took the meat.
 nobody found it.
 the water spoiled it.
 we are those who grew.
 those who went to Bontok were those who killed the cat.

2. The substantival voice is used:

a. When the object follows the verb and is determinate; stress on the object. Examples:

inumék ti danúm
kaném daytá tinápay
aláen ni Juán ti pirákna
asinánmi ti kárne
sagádanda ti kuárto
ipányo ti ikán idiáy baláy
ibagáyo ti kayátayo
pagdigúsentayo ti nuáng
paarámidta ti lakása

I drink the water (not any kind of water).
 eat that bread.
 John takes his money.
 we salt the meat.
 they sweep the room.
 carry the fish into the house.
 say what you like.
 let us bathe the carabao.
 let us have the trunk made.

b. When the object precedes the verb, stress on the object. Examples:

danúm ti inumék
isú ti surótém

water is what I drink.
 he is the one you follow.

otóng ti ginátanǵda
 saán a daytáy ti kayátayo
 asino ti baútenna
 ni Juán ti bináonta
 dagiti púsa ti ayabántayo
 baláy ti bañgónenmi
 bunéñ ti birókek
 dakamí ti tuládenyo
 awán ti nasapulanna

cowpeas are what they bought.
 this is not what you like.
 whom does he whip?
 John was the one we sent.
 the cats are what we call.
 a house is what we build.
 a cutlass is what I look for.
 we are those you imitate.
 he found nothing.

II. PREFIXES, INFIXES, AND SUFFIXES

Almost all simple prefixes, infixes, and suffixes allow combinations with other prefixes, infixes, and suffixes; we shall give the most important and characteristic ones under each simple prefix, infix, and suffix. Combinations of adjectival prefixes, infixes, and suffixes with substantival ones will be studied under the latter.

THE ILOKO ADJECTIVAL VOICE

1. THE PREFIX *AG*

a. THE SIMPLE PREFIX

I. Form of the present: the prefix *ag*. Form of the past: the prefix *nag*.

II. A. This is the most used of all prefixes, infixes, and suffixes for verbs used in the adjectival construction, and verbal stems that do not allow it are rather scarce. It is really the one almost universal prefix for intransitive verbs in the Iloko adjectival voice. Examples:

agsañǵitak
 nagsaókka
 agsaríta
 nagkatáwa dagiti balásañǵ
 agísem ti lakáy
 nagsápulda iti tabáko
 nagsúrat ni Ana
 agtaráytago ámin
 agbásakayo

I weep.
 you spoke.
 he talks.
 the girls laughed.
 the old man smiles.
 they looked for tobacco.
 Ann wrote.
 let us all run.
 read.

B. This prefix is used especially:

1. With names of instruments, and forms a verb meaning: to use a certain instrument. Examples:

agdakiliskami
 nagkatámda
 agragádi ni António
 dakám ti agpandarás
 nagságad

we fish with a dragnet.
 they planed.
 Anthony saws.
 we are those who cut with an adze.
 he used the broom.

asino ti nagarádo
agbiolin ni Félix
nagsilaw dagiti limmábas
agpaétla

who plowed?
 Felix plays the violin.
 those who passed carried a light.
 they chisel.

2. With names of plays and games, and forms a verb meaning: to play a certain game. Examples:

agsúnayda
nagsugál ni kabsátko
aglipay dagiti ubbíng

agkudókami

nagtañggákayo
dagitá ti nagsipa

agsintikta
nagkíngkíng da Juána

they spin tops.
 my brother gambled.
 the children play at *lipay* (fruits used as marbles).
 we play at *kudo* (pebbles used as jackstones).
 you played at pitchpenny.
 those played at *sipa* (a kind of football).
 let us play at marbles (flipping).
 Joan and her companions played at hopscotch.

3. With names of clothing, ornaments, and forms a verb meaning: to wear a certain piece of clothing, and so on.

agbádoka
nagsapín ni ádiñgko
dika agkallogónḡ
isúda ti agsínḡsiñḡ
agulés ni gayyémko
nagaritos dagiti babbái
agsagaysáyda
ápáy ñga agpáyongkayo

put on a coat.
 my younger brother wore pants.
 do not wear a hat.
 they are those who wear rings.
 my friend wears a blanket.
 the women wore earrings.
 they wear combs.
 why do you carry an umbrella?

4. With names of fruits without owner—fish, and the like, and forms a verb meaning: to gather a certain kind of fruit, to catch a certain kind of fish, and so on.⁵ Examples:

napánkami nagtabúñḡaw
íntayo agbisukól
agrasáda
aynatéñḡta
nagkuritá da gayyémko

nagbayábaskami
siák ti napán nagdaláyap
nagbilísda idi kalmán

we went to gather bottle gourds.
 let us go and gather pond snails.
 they gather crabs.
 let us gather vegetables.
 my friend and his companions gathered cuttles.
 we gathered guavas.
 I went to gather lemons.
 they gathered sardines yesterday.

5. With names of ailments, and forms a verb meaning: to be affected by a certain kind of ailment. Examples:

agsakitak
aggurigur ni áma

I am ill.
 my father has fever.

⁵ Reduplication of Verbal Stems, II, 1, Note. Unpublished.

<i>naggaddilkami ámin</i>	we all had itch.
<i>agsárut ti asáwana</i>	his wife has consumption.
<i>nagpúdotka itáy</i>	you had fever a while ago.
<i>aguyék</i>	he coughs.
<i>nagsíkada idiáy</i>	they had dysentery there.
<i>nagburtóng idi ubíng pay láeñg</i>	he had smallpox when he was still a child.

6. With names of positions, occupations, trade, and so on, and forms a verb meaning: to have a certain position, to follow a certain profession and the like. Examples:

<i>agsekretário ni ulitégko</i>	my uncle has the position of secretary.
<i>nagsoldádo dagiti kaaróbak</i>	my neighbors were soldiers.
<i>agallawágida</i>	they are carpenters by trade.
<i>agokóm ti kaádalko</i>	my classmate has the position of judge.
<i>napán nagmédiko</i>	he went to practise medicine.
<i>agmáestra ni Isabél</i>	Elizabeth is a teacher.

7. With stems usually formed into adjectives, or adjectival verbs in *ma*, and others, and forms a verb indicating the action corresponding to the state implied by the adjective, and so on. Examples:

<i>agbulsék</i>	he becomes blind.
<i>agsingpétkayo</i>	be virtuous.
<i>nagánusda</i>	they suffered it patiently.
<i>agpíluy ni Juan</i>	John limps.
<i>diika agbayág</i>	do not be long.
<i>agragáktay ámin</i>	let us all rejoice.
<i>nagináyadkami</i>	we went slowly.
<i>nagdarásta únay</i>	we went very fast.
<i>agsadút</i>	he has a fit of laziness.
<i>agpatáy ni gayyémko</i>	my friend is dying.
<i>dagiti nagawán</i>	those who died.

8. With numbers, and forms a verb meaning: to reach, for example, a certain number. In the past tense these verbs obviously mean: to be a certain number, because what became ten, twelve, and so on, also is ten, twelve, and so on. Examples:

<i>agruppátda</i>	they reach the number of four.
<i>nagwalókami</i>	we were eight.
<i>agtalló púlo a tawén</i>	he reaches his thirtieth year.
<i>nagsiám a gasútda nga immáy</i>	they came nine hundred in number.
<i>agduá a salúp</i>	it amounts to two gantas.

b. COMBINATIONS

I. All these combinations form their past in the same way as the simple prefix *ag*, by changing *ag* into *nag*:

II. Nearly all forms of substantives, adjectives, numbers, and the like, allow the prefix *ag* to form intransitive verbs, with the same meanings as those explained under the simple prefix *ag*, especially II, B, 7 and 8. Examples:

<i>nagkastóykami</i>	we acted this way.
<i>agpañgóló ti maysà</i>	one takes the lead.
<i>nagginasútá</i>	they were (going) by hundreds.
<i>nagsañgápúlokami</i>	we were ten.
<i>agmaíyoñg ni Francisco</i>	Francis becomes insane.
<i>nagpakínákemda ití dákes</i>	they had bad intentions.
<i>agdapoén daytá manók</i>	that chicken becomes of a grayish color.
<i>agtarikáyotayo</i>	let us gather timber.
<i>agkabannuág</i>	he is at his full strength.
<i>agbumaró</i>	to become a young man.

III. Here follow some of the most noteworthy combinations:

A. Forms alluded to before; the prefix *ag* is used:

1. To form coördinate words and the plural of adjectives; these forms have been explained under the adjective.⁶ Examples:

<i>agkaláganda</i>	they board the same car.
<i>agkasinnalísal da Juán ken Antonio.</i>	John and Anthony are rivals.
<i>nagkapitlókami</i>	we were third cousins.
<i>agkalínasda</i>	they pull the same string (they are of one mind).
<i>dáda agkaawátan</i>	they do not understand each other.
<i>agkainnarwátanda</i>	they understand each other.
<i>dagití agkakadákes</i>	the bad ones.
<i>dagití agkakainñgel a soldádo</i>	the valiant soldiers.

2. With the combinations indicating reciprocity, rivalry, and so on. Examples:

<i>naglinnímedda</i>	they hid from one another.
<i>nagpinnakawánda</i>	they forgave one another.
<i>agtinnúlonñgtayo</i>	let us help each other.
<i>aglinnaíñgtayo</i>	let us emulate one another in cleverness.
<i>aginnápalda</i>	they envy one another.
<i>agkitankítada</i>	they look at one another.
<i>nagtulonñgtulóñgkami</i>	we helped each other.
<i>díkay agsusiksúsik</i>	do not dispute with one another.
<i>nagtunñgpátunñgpáta</i>	we slapped one another in the face.
<i>agkarinkarída</i>	they make promises to one another.

⁶ III. Special Forms, 1: coördinate words, IV; general remarks, II. Anthropos 26 (1931) 480-481, 485-486.

<i>agkablankablaáwda</i>	they salute one another.
<i>agtuliditúlid</i>	it turns over and over.
<i>aglinnukmeglukémégda a duá</i>	both vie with one another in fatness.

3. With forms indicating resemblance, imitation, and so on.

Examples:

<i>agsinanpádi láeñg</i>	he is only a fake (not a real priest).
<i>nagsinansábuñg</i>	it had the shape of a flower.
<i>agsinanmayát ni José</i>	Joseph acts as if he was willing.
<i>agmarasiksikan ti sáka ti baniás</i>	the legs of the iguana are covered with scales.
<i>agmarasinádag daytá sabá</i>	that banana tree is leaning.
<i>agmaragampáñg ni Catalina</i>	Catherine is very frivolous.
<i>agmarabettakán</i>	it is nearly fissured.
<i>agmaratamnáy</i>	it tastes rather flat.
<i>nagkaskastilakami</i>	we acted like Spaniards.
<i>agsañgsañgláytago</i>	let us imitate Chinamen.
<i>naglallaláki ni Margarita</i>	Margaret wore men's clothes.

4. Sometimes with the prefix *si* including the notion of comitance. Examples:

<i>nagsiwará dagitt tattáo</i>	the men scattered.
<i>agsitáñgadhayo</i>	look up.
<i>agsiwarnák</i>	he publishes the news.
<i>agsiwarás</i>	he distributes things.

5. With the suffix *an* in a very few cases; then the original meaning of the word in *ag* becomes stronger and more important. Examples:

<i>agbelladán</i>	he is overfed.
<i>aglippiásan a panagyáman</i>	an overflowing gratitude.
<i>dikay agub-ubíñgán</i>	do not act like children.
<i>agkanibusánan ti biág</i>	life is at an end.
<i>agnakmánka</i>	be full of prudence.

B. New forms:

1. The prefix *ag* is used with the prefix *tagi* to indicate property or possession.

<i>agtagibunéñg ni apók</i>	my grandfather carries a cutlass.
<i>nagtagigayáñgda ámin</i>	they all carried spears.
<i>agtagipaltógtayo</i>	let us carry a gun.
<i>isú ti nagtagikuá</i>	he was the owner.
<i>agtagiláko</i>	she sells (that is, a saleswoman).
<i>nagtagipuráwda</i>	they were clothed in white.
<i>agtagibaláy</i>	she looks after the house.
<i>agtagianákka kaniák</i>	consider me as your child.

2. The prefix *ag* is used with the prefix *in*, to form verbs meaning: to pretend to be so and so. Stems joined to the com-

plex prefix *agin* have their initial open syllable reduplicated, and, when they begin with a vowel, a glottal catch is placed between the complex prefix and the stem. Examples:

<i>aginbubutéñg</i>	he pretends to be afraid.
<i>aginsasáñgit láeñg</i>	he just pretends to weep.
<i>patináyon ñga aginsasakit dagi- díay</i>	those ones always pretend to be ill.
<i>aginpipílày ta nasadút</i>	he simulates lameness because he is lazy.
<i>naginbubulsékkami</i>	we simulated blindness.
<i>bay-ám ta agintutúleñg láeñg</i>	leave him because he only pretends to be deaf.
<i>dika agbutéñg, aginbabáut láeñg</i>	do not be afraid, he only pretends to whip.
<i>aginbabannógkayo</i>	you pretend to be tired.
<i>aginbabain</i>	he simulates shame.
<i>agindidiammo</i>	he simulates ignorance.
<i>nagin-aápalda</i>	they pretended to be jealous.
<i>agin-uunǵét</i>	he simulates anger.
<i>agin-aáwatda</i>	they pretend to understand.
<i>agin-ñisú</i>	he is presumptuous (literally: he pretends to be he).

NOTE 3. The complex prefix *agsin*, with the same modification of the stem and use of the glottal catch as noted with the preceding form, and the complex prefix *agsin . . . inn* indicate rivalry, reciprocity, and so on; but these forms have become almost antiquated. The same may be said about the combination *agsin . . . an*, meaning: to be mixed with, and so on. Examples:

<i>agsintutúloñgda</i>	they help one another.
<i>agsinpipinnatigmáankami</i>	we counsel one another.
<i>agsinlalakián dagitá babbái</i>	those women mix with men.

2. THE INFIX UM

I. Form of the present: the infix *um*. Form of the past: the infix *imm*.

II. A. This is a much used infix for verbs used with the adjectival construction, and, when used with stems that allow the prefix *ag*, it indicates an action of less duration, importance, or the like, than the latter. For example, *agtugáw*, to sit: *tumugáw*, to sit down; *agtakdér*, to stand; *tumakdér*, to stand up. Examples:

<i>uminám ti áso</i>	the dog drinks.
<i>umúlíka</i>	come up, come in.
<i>immúlogkami</i>	we went down, we left the house.
<i>dika sumuñgbát</i>	do not answer.
<i>tumaráykayo</i>	run.

<i>napán immisbú</i>	he went to make water.
<i>tumakké ti nuánḡ</i>	the carabao defecates.
<i>lumúganta</i>	let us climb in.
<i>sumakáyda iti kabáyo</i>	they mount horses.
<i>gimmátanḡ iti bagás</i>	she bought rice.
<i>umísem</i>	he smiles.
<i>basáem ti sumaridát</i>	read the following.
<i>sumúrotka kaniák</i>	follow me.
<i>dumsáagkayo</i>	alight.

B. This infix is used especially:

1. To translate the English: to grow (more), to become (more). Examples:

<i>dumakkél ti ubiḡ</i>	the child grows.
<i>lumakáy datáo</i>	one ages.
<i>bumassít ti bagás</i>	the rice diminishes.
<i>umadú ti áso</i>	the dogs increase.
<i>immatiddág daytá</i>	that grew longer.
<i>umababá ketdi</i>	it rather grows shorter.
<i>immátap ti nuánḡ</i>	the carabao became wild.
<i>umámo ti bákes</i>	the monkey gets tame.
<i>lumamús ti danúm</i>	the water cools down.
<i>sumayáat</i>	it becomes better.

2. To form verbs which indicate the threatening of an action rather than the action itself. In English when one says: that dog bites, it does not necessarily mean that he is actually biting. The Iloko have two different ways to render both meanings: *agkagát*, he actually bites; *kumagát*, he threatens biting. Examples:

<i>bumáut daytá lakáy</i>	that old man threatens whipping one.
<i>tumúdo</i>	it threatens rain.
<i>kumagát ti ásoyo</i>	your dog bites.
<i>sumipát ta bakét</i>	that old woman threatens slapping one.
<i>bumugták ni Juan</i>	John threatens scolding.
<i>kumábil</i>	he threatens beating one.
<i>lumabága daytá</i>	that one turns red.

NOTE 4. A similar notion is included in a few adjectives or substantives, formed with the infix *imm*: they indicate resemblance with what the stem implies. Example:

<i>simminublán</i>	something resembling a sinublán pot.
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3. THE PREFIX *MAKA*

I. Form of the present: the prefix *maka*. Form of the past: the prefix *naka*.

II. This prefix is used:

1. To indicate active possibility, and, when used with the form of the past, to indicate completion of the action. Examples:

<i>makaúliak</i>	I can climb up.
<i>saànak a makataráy</i>	I cannot run.
<i>makasañgpetkayonto</i>	will you be able to come home?
<i>diak makapagná</i>	I cannot walk.
<i>dida makakuti iti butéñg</i>	they cannot move through fear.
<i>idi ubíñgak nakataráyak</i>	when I was a child I could run.
<i>saán pay a nakapagná idi kalman</i>	he could not yet walk yesterday.
<i>nakadánon idiáy Alilem</i>	he arrived at Alilem.
<i>nakapánen</i>	he went already.
<i>nakarubbuátkami</i>	we finished our preparations for the journey.
<i>nakaddit</i>	she finished sewing.
<i>nakainúmka</i>	did you drink?

2. To indicate natural needs. Examples:

<i>makatúrog ni Juán</i>	John is sleepy.
<i>nakainúmak únay</i>	I was very thirsty.
<i>rimmuár ta makaibsbú</i>	he went out as he wants to make water.
<i>makatakkí daytá áso</i>	that dog wants to defecate.
<i>makatabákoda</i>	they want a smoke.
<i>makakatáwa ni Ana</i>	Ann feels like laughing.
<i>makasáñgit ti ubíñg</i>	the child feels like weeping.

3. To indicate ordinary effect; in this case the initial open syllable of the stem⁷ is sometimes reduplicated. Examples:

<i>ti básol a makapatáy</i>	the grievous sin (literally: the sin that kills).
<i>makaágas daytá a róot</i>	that herb has curative power.
<i>dika agtòkarw aniá la ketdi ta makabásolka</i>	do not steal lest you commit a fault.
<i>nakatipéd daydiáy</i>	that one was an impediment.
<i>makaúma</i>	it is tiring.
<i>makasúya ti tabá</i>	fat causes nausea.
<i>makatutúdo</i>	it causes rain.
<i>makasasadút daydiáy</i>	that makes one lazy.

4. With cardinal numbers, to indicate how many of a certain class one wants to buy, one takes, how many of a certain class something can contain, and so on. With the numbers in *kanika*, the prefix simply becomes *makanika*.⁷ Examples:

<i>makatalóak</i>	I want to buy three.
<i>nakapitókami</i>	we took seven.
<i>makađuá daytá karretón</i>	that cart holds two.
<i>nakalimá kanó</i>	it is said to have been able to hold five.
<i>makanikaduá púloda ket đuá</i>	they want to take twelve.

⁷ The adverb, II; adverbs of time, III. Unpublished.

III. The prefix *makapag* (past: *nakapag*): This prefix is used with stems that allow the prefix *ag* to indicate that the action implied by the stem is or is not impeded by an obstacle from without (physical inability). For examples, *diak makasúrat*, I cannot write (because I did not go to school, or for some similar reason); *diak makapagsúrat*, I cannot write (because I have no pen, people push me, my arm is broken, or for some similar reason). Examples:

<i>saánda a makapagálad</i>	they cannot make a fence.
<i>díkam nakapagtugáw</i>	we could not sit down.
<i>diak nakapagtúloñg</i>	I could not help.
<i>saánkam a makapagkatáwa</i>	we cannot laugh.
<i>makapagtaráykayo dítoy</i>	can you run here?
<i>saánkayo a makapagsúrat ta</i>	you cannot write because there is an
<i>agginginé</i>	earthquake.
<i>saánkami a nakapagsaríta ta adú</i>	we could not talk as there were many
<i>ti ubbíñg</i>	children.

NOTE 5. *a.* The combination *makapag . . . inn* (past: *nakapag . . . inn*) of reciprocity, and the complex prefix *makapagin* (past: *nakapagin*) of pretending, both derived from the preceding, are rarely used. Examples:

<i>saánda a nakapagkikinníta</i>	they were not able to see each other.
<i>diak makapaginpipílày</i>	I cannot pretend to be lame.

b. The prefix *makapañg* (past: *nakapañg*) differs from *makapag* in the same way as the transitive prefix *mañg* differs from the intransitive prefix *ag*. Examples:

<i>makapamárut daytá manók</i>	that chicken sheds its feathers.
<i>nakapañgdúsa kaniák</i>	he could punish me.

4. THE PREFIX MAKI

a. THE SIMPLE PREFIX

I. Form of the present: the prefix *maki*. Form of the past: the prefix *naki*.

II. This prefix is used:

1. To indicate that something is done with others. Examples:

<i>makisarítakam kenkuána</i>	we talk with him.
<i>napánda nakisugál</i>	they went to gamble.
<i>íntayo makibúya</i>	let us go and see (the performance).
<i>makikúyogka</i>	go with (him).
<i>nakipán ni Luís</i>	Lewis also went.
<i>madída a makitúlag</i>	they do not want to make a contract.
<i>nakiasáwa ni Ana</i>	Ann married.
<i>ínta makiáni</i>	let us go to participate in the harvest.
<i>kuyátko ti makisaó</i>	I want to talk with (you).
<i>makilásinka iti daytáy</i>	keep away from this one.
<i>napán nakigubát</i>	he went to war.

NOTE 6. Note the difference between the two expressions:

agápa da Juán ken António
makiápa ni Juán ken António

John and Anthony quarrel.
John quarrels with Anthony.

2. To indicate that somebody treats a person as his father, friend, or the like, according to the meaning of the stem. Examples:

makiádi kaniák
makiamákami kenkuána
makigayyémda ken Juán

he treats me as his younger brother.
we treat him as our father.
they make friends with John.

3. With stems meaning "to ask," without changing the latter's meaning. Examples:

makidáwatka iti áral
nakidáwatda iti kuárta
nakirañgkápda iti sungród
makirañgkápkami iti natéñg
ínka makisaluksúd
makiintúodak

ask for wine.
they asked for money.
they asked for fuel.
we ask for vegetables.
go and ask.
I ask.

4. With names of fruits, and the like, and forms a verb meaning: to ask for a certain kind of fruit, and so on. Examples:

makinatéñgka
makiabayástayo ken Juán
nakitabákoak ken áma
ínkayo makisidá

ask for vegetables.
let us ask John for guavas.
I asked my father for tobacco.
go and ask for viands.

b. COMBINATIONS

I. All these combinations form their past in the same way as the simple prefix *maki*, by changing *maki* into *naki*.

II. The prefix *maki* is used:

1. With the prefix *ka* and with the combination *ka . . . an*, indicating companionship. Examples:

makikatugáwak kenká
makikabbaláykami ken Juán
nakikaiddá kaniák
makikadáratayo kenkuána
makikabagiánda kaniák

I sit down with you.
we live in the same house with John.
he lay down with me.
we are of the same blood as he.
they are relatives of mine.

2. With the combinations indicating reciprocity, rivalry, and so forth. Examples:

makisinnakláng ken amána
makisinnúratda iti gayyémda

he faces his father.
they write to their friend and vice versa.

nakitinnúlagda
makiinníliw

they made a contract.
he longs to see (him) and vice versa.

<i>makilinnĩngáy kaniák</i>	he gives me some distraction and vice versa.
<i>makibinnĩlanĩngda kenkuána</i>	they count it over with him.
<i>makibalanbalákad</i>	he gives good advice and receives it.
<i>makiammoammó</i>	he becomes an acquaintance.
<i>makitapkitapkĩl kadagití babbái</i>	he mixes with women.
<i>makipinnatenpatégak kadakayó</i>	I prize you very much and vice versa.

3. With the infix *um*, and forms a verb meaning: to desire, to have a longing for what is expressed in the stem. Examples:

<i>makisumarítaak</i>	I want to talk.
<i>makikumítada ití baláyko</i>	they want to see my house.
<i>makiminĩnkami</i>	we want to drink.
<i>makidumámag</i>	she wants to ask for information.

III. The prefix *makipag* (past: *nakipag*): This prefix is used with stems that allow the prefix *ag* to indicate that the action implied by the stem is performed in the company of somebody who himself performs it in the company of others. For example: *kayátko ti makisaó kenkuána*, I want to have a talk with him; *innak makipagsaó*, I shall go with (you) to have a talk with (him); *bay-ám ta makisaríta kaniák*, let him be, so that he may have a talk with me; *adú ti makipagsaríta*, many people join (him) to have a talk with (you). Examples:

<i>mokipagtáwidda kaniák</i>	they are my coheirs.
<i>nakipagmaymaysá kadakamí</i>	he was one with us.
<i>makipagpúyatkay kaniák</i>	watch with me.
<i>nakipagtúlág kadakuáda</i>	he arranged the contract with them.
<i>nakipagbiág kadatayó</i>	he lived with us.
<i>idí napának nakimísa nakítak</i>	when I went to hear Mass, I saw
<i>a nakipagmísa ni apó Antonio</i>	Father Anthony saying Mass also.

NOTE 7. *a*. The combination *makipag . . . inn* (past: *nakipag . . . inn*) of reciprocity, and the complex prefix *makipagin* (past: *nakipagin*) of pre-tending, both derived from the preceding, and the complex prefixes *makisin* and *makisin . . . inn* of reciprocity are rarely used. Examples:

<i>makipagtitinnũloĩngkayo</i>	join them in helping one another.
<i>nakipagintutũleĩng</i>	he also pretended to be deaf.
<i>makisinpatigmáankami</i>	we counsel one another.

b. The prefix *makipaĩng* (past: *nakipaĩng*) differs from *makipag* in the same way as the transitive prefix *maĩng* differs from the intransitive prefix *ag*. Examples:

<i>intayo makipamonpón</i>	let us go to the funeral.
<i>dagiti makipaĩngáyog</i>	the companions.
<i>nakipaĩngrabti</i>	he had supper with them.
<i>napán nakipaĩngán kenkuána</i>	he went to eat with him.
<i>nakipaĩngdalús kadagitá</i>	he helped cleaning those.

5. THE PREFIX *MANĠ*

I. Form of the present: the prefix *manġ*. Form of the past: the prefix *nanġ*.⁸

II. A. This prefix is used chiefly to change into the adjectival construction a great number of verbs, which are ordinarily construed substantivally and which, for one of the reasons explained above, have to become adjectival. Most of the prefixes of the substantival verbs are combined with the prefix *manġ*, whenever the construction has to be changed into the adjectival voice; therefore we shall give explanations and examples of the use of this particular prefix later on.

B. The prefix *manġ* is used especially:

1. With names of fruits without owner, fish, and the like, and forms a verb meaning: to gather a certain kind of fruit, to catch a certain kind of fish and so on.⁹ Examples:

intayo manġáyo
napánda nanġróot
umáykami manġlánot
nanuñgródda
ínka manġípon

let us go and gather wood.
 they went to get grass.
 we come to get vines.
 they gathered fuel.
 go and catch *ípon* (a kind of very small fish).

2. To form verbs meaning: to buy something in general. Examples:

intayo manġnuánġ
umáyda manġápas
namáka ti kayátda
napánda nanġmanók
inta mamágay

let us go and buy carabaos.
 they come to buy cotton.
 buying cows is what they want.
 they went to buy chickens.
 let us go and buy rice.

3. With words indicating the worth of something in money, and forms a verb meaning: to be worth each a certain amount. Examples:

manalapi
mamisos daytá
manikápat

they are worth fifty centavos each.
 that is worth a peso.
 they are worth twelve centavos each.

4. In some other cases. Examples:

manġán ni Juán
mamigátkami
nanġaldáwkayon
ínkayo manġrabti

John eats.
 we breakfast.
 have you had lunch?
 go and take your supper.

Notes on Iloko. Anthropos 23 (1928) 1037, 1038.

Reduplication of Verbal Stems. II: 1, Note. Unpublished.

6. THE PREFIX *MA*

a. THE SIMPLE PREFIX

I. Form of the present: the prefix *ma*. Form of the past: the prefix *na*.

II. A. This prefix is used chiefly for the passive voice, and practically every prefix and suffix of the Iloko substantival voice may be combined with it; therefore we shall give explanations and examples of the use of this particular prefix later on.¹⁰

B. The prefix *ma* is used also:

1. To indicate passive possibility (with the form of the present). Examples:

<i>makita ti baláy</i>	the house can be seen.
<i>saán a madáit</i>	it cannot be sewn.
<i>matarimáan pay</i>	can it still be repaired?
<i>saán a matiliw ti kabáyo</i>	the horse cannot be caught.
<i>saán a maibús daytá</i>	that cannot be used up.
<i>maála</i>	can it be taken?
<i>saán a maúray</i>	it cannot be waited for.
<i>di matúkod</i>	it cannot be fathomed.

2. In some other cases. Examples:

<i>madíkami</i>	we won't.
<i>natúrogda</i>	they slept.
<i>mabalín</i>	it is possible.
<i>masápul</i>	it is necessary.
<i>masakít ti anákko</i>	my child is ill.
<i>nabisínkayo</i>	were you hungry?
<i>nawáwkami</i>	we were thirsty.
<i>masdáawda</i>	they are astonished.
<i>naúma dagiti gayyémko</i>	my friends got tired of it.
<i>nabátida idiáy ilida</i>	they remained in their town.
<i>masúya ni Santiágo</i>	James nauseates.
<i>maariékkami</i>	we sicken at it.
<i>mapúrarda</i>	they are dazzled.
<i>awán ti nabáti</i>	nothing remained.

b. COMBINATIONS

1. The complex prefix *masi* or *masin* (past: *nasi* or *nasin*) has the notion of concomitance combined with the original meaning of the prefix *ma*. Examples:

<i>masidadáankami</i> or <i>masindadáan-</i>	we are waiting obsequiously, we are
<i>kami</i>	ready.
<i>masitammél daytá ubíng</i>	that child is struck dumb.

¹⁰ The Substantival Prefix *ma*. Unpublished.

2. When the suffix *an* is joined to a verb in *ma* this combination (past: *na . . . an*) very often indicates either a completion, an intensification of what the verb with the simple prefix *ma* would indicate, or the impossibility of performing it. Here also the suffix *an* retains its distinctive quality: it is a real locative, as may be clearly seen by some of the examples, for example: *init*, sun, *mainítan*, it lies in the sun; *napúdot*, it is warm, *napudótan*, it is full of heat; *mapúkaw*, it is lost, *mapukáwan*, he loses something. More will be said about this combination later on.

It should be remembered, however, that the suffix *an* of substantival verbs may be used together with the adjectival prefix *ma*, in which case the explanation of this construction will be found later on, as has been stated above. Examples:

<i>narabiánkamí</i>	we were overtaken by the night.
<i>napudótan idiáy</i>	it got thoroughly heated there.
<i>mabisinán</i>	he starves.
<i>saán a masapulán</i>	it cannot be found.
<i>mainítanto idiáy</i>	it will lie in the sun there.
<i>napukáwan ní Juán</i>	John lost something.
<i>napuyátan dagít ubbíng</i>	the children were awake too long.
<i>nalám-ekán</i>	he got thoroughly cold.
<i>nasimataának láeñg kenkuána</i>	I only saw him with a glimpse.

3. When the prefix *ag* is joined to a verb which retains its own prefix *ma*, the first consonant of the latter is changed into *k*, and the complex prefix *agka* (past: *nagka*) gives the verb something of an active meaning; for example; *maañgínan*, it is exposed to the wind, *agkaañgínan*, he exposes himself to the wind. Examples:

<i>ápáy a napánkd agkapudótan</i>	why did you go to become entirely hot.
<i>nagkaañgínanda</i>	they exposed themselves to the wind.
<i>agkainítan ní António</i>	Anthony (lies) in the sun.
<i>agkapitákan</i>	he gets himself covered with mud.
<i>agkarugítan</i>	he dirties himself.
<i>agkatudoán</i>	he (stands) in the rain.
<i>agkalimdoósan</i>	he gets himself covered with cold sweat.
<i>agkadinámag tí pintásna</i>	her beauty is renowned wide and far.

7. THE PREFIX KARA

I. This prefix has no special form for the past.

II. The prefix *kara* is used to indicate that the action implied by the stem is repeated frequently. Examples:

<i>karaáwid tí gayyémko</i>	my friend goes home continually.
<i>karaumáy</i>	he comes all the time.

III. The prefix *kara* may be combined with the prefix *ag* (past: *nagkara*) and with the infix *um* (past: *kimmara*), and the difference between the two is the same as that between *ag* and *um*.

<i>agkarasubli ti lúgan</i>	the cart comes back continually.
<i>agkarabóong daytá piñggán</i>	that plate gets cracks all the time.
<i>agkarawid</i>	he goes home continually.
<i>agkarawmá</i>	he comes all the time.
<i>nagkarapugsát ti tali</i>	the rope snapped all the time.
<i>kumarasubli</i>	it comes back continually.

8. THE INFIX AN

I. This infix, in the adjectival voice, occurs only in combinations either with the prefixes *ag*, *agka*, or *ma*, or with the infix *um*; the form of the past of the original prefix or infix is retained in these combinations.

II. The infix *an* is used to form verbs indicating repetition, intensity, and so on, of actions, especially of sounds.

When the infix *an* is used with the complex prefix *agka*, the action or sound indicated by the word is produced by more individuals, for example, than when it is used with the simple prefix *ag*; the second prefix *ka* stands either for companionship or plurality.

When the infix *an* is used with the infix *um*, the action or sound indicated by the word is of shorter duration and more often repeated than when it is used with the prefix *ag*.

The prefix *ag* and the infix *um* have an active meaning, the prefix *ma* has a passive one. Examples:

<i>agsanultip</i>	he blows a whistle with force.
<i>agbanitog</i>	he thumps.
<i>agranetrét ti rikép</i>	the door creaks.
<i>agkanuskús</i>	he gathers to himself.
<i>nagbanetbét</i>	he struck with force.
<i>agkabanetbétda</i>	they strike with force.
<i>bumanorbór ti karayán</i>	the river roars.
<i>dumanásádas</i>	it rustles.
<i>kimmanagkág ti pandilín̄gna</i>	her skirt rustled.
<i>tumanogtóg</i>	he knocks repeatedly.
<i>bumanerbér ti áñgin</i>	the wind roars.
<i>bumanítog</i>	he thumps repeatedly.
<i>wumaneswés</i>	he whirs along.
<i>sumanigki</i>	he sits up with a sudden jerk and sighing.
<i>kumanagkág ti sellág</i>	the moon shines bright.
<i>nakanagkág ti sellág</i>	the moonlight was very beautiful.

NOTE 8. Very common forms, more or less onomatopoetic, and chiefly used for verbs indicating repetition or intensity of sound, have been explained in Notes on Iloko.¹¹

The difference of the complex prefix *agka* and that of the simple prefix *ag* consists here also in the notion of plurality, which is included in the prefix *ka*; this notion of plurality bears on the cause or origin of the action or sound.

The infix *um* here also indicates a slighter action or sound than the prefix *ag*.

The prefix *ag* and the infix *um* have an active meaning, while the prefix *ma* has a passive one.

a. The forms with repetition of the initial consonant. Examples:

<i>agbabtóog</i>	he thumps.
<i>nagkaktóol</i>	he knocked noisily.
<i>nagkababtóogda</i>	they thumped.
<i>agkakaktóol dagiti ubbiñg</i>	the children knock noisily.
<i>agkakakliñgda</i>	they jingle.
<i>agkararpáakda</i>	they bang.
<i>nababtóog ti niug</i>	the coconut thumped.
<i>makaktóol</i>	it knocks noisily.
<i>makakliñg</i>	it clinks.

b. The forms in *n*, where the infix *an* remains distinctly apparent: *agkana*, *mana*. Examples:

<i>agkanabtóogda</i>	they thump.
<i>nagkanaktóol dagiti sapátosna</i>	his shoes knocked noisily.
<i>agkanakliñgda</i>	they jingle.
<i>agkanalpiitda</i>	they clap.
<i>agkanakláañgda</i>	they clang.
<i>agkanaltóogda</i>	they crepitate.
<i>nanabtóog ti niug</i>	the coconut thumped.
<i>manaktóol</i>	it knocks noisily.
<i>manakliñg</i>	it clinks.
<i>manaltóog</i>	it crackles.
<i>manalsiit</i>	it spits.

c. The forms without repetition of the initial consonant. Examples:

<i>agrittóok</i>	it cracks.
<i>nagrittúik</i>	it cracked.
<i>agrottóok</i>	it cracks.
<i>lumtáak</i>	it clacks.
<i>lumtóog</i>	it cracks.
<i>lumsíit</i>	it spat.

9. THE PREFIX AGA

I. This prefix has no special form for the past.

II. This prefix is used:

¹¹ *Anthropos* 23 (1928) 1039, 1040.

1. With stems meaning a part of the body, or the like, to indicate how far the water, a piece of clothing, or the like, reaches. Examples:

<i>agasiket ti karayán</i>	the water of the river reaches the waist.
<i>agatúmenġ idi kalmán</i>	it reached the knees yesterday.
<i>agasiko dagiti mángos ti bádok</i>	the sleeves of my coat reach my elbow.

NOTE 9. Sometimes the prefix *paga* is used with the same meaning. Example:

<i>pagatenġngéd ti danúm</i>	the water reaches the neck.
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2. With stems meaning a substance which diffuses a certain odor, to characterize the smell of something. Examples:

<i>agabáwañġ ti ngíwatmo</i>	your mouth smells of garlic.
<i>agaárakkayo</i>	you smell of wine.
<i>agalasoná ditóy</i>	it smells of onions here.

10. THE SUFFIX *EN*

I. Form of the present: the suffix *en*. Form of the past: the infix *in*.

II. This suffix is used:

1. With stems indicating ailments, and the like, and forms a verb meaning: to feel the symptoms of a certain disease, for example. Examples:

<i>gaddilén ti ubiñġko</i>	my child gets itch.
<i>burtónġenak</i>	I am getting the smallpox.
<i>talimudáwen ni Juán</i>	John is dizzy.
<i>patináyon a rabíi alimbaságenak</i>	every night I have the nightmare.
<i>til-ién ti ubiñġ</i>	the child has hiccups.
<i>saguyepyepénkami</i>	we are overcome by sleep.
<i>tinarobáayka itáy bigát</i>	you were weak this morning for not having eaten last night.
<i>talipunġáwenak ditóy baláy</i>	I feel sad all alone in this house.
<i>alimutñġénkayo</i>	are you angry?
<i>sakitén ti ólok</i>	my head aches.
<i>sakitén ti nákemko</i>	I am sorry.

2. With names of parts of the body, or the like, and forms a verb meaning: this or that part of the body, aches, is sore, for example. Examples:

<i>bakráñġen ti anákko</i>	my child has pain in its side.
<i>karabukobénda ámin</i>	all of them have a sore throat.
<i>sikétenak</i>	I feel pain in my waist.
<i>basisáwen ni Juán (from basisaw,</i>	the water gurgles in John's belly
bladder)	(for having drunk too much of it).
<i>rurusókenda (from rúsok, stomach)</i>	they eructate.

3. With names of animals, or the like, to indicate that a certain animal has started eating, consuming, for example, something. Examples:

ináso ti kárne
kotonén ti inapáy
inánay ti lúpotko
pusáen ti tinápáy
dinánḡaw ti págay

binokbók ti bagás
ayaménak
kimatén ti káyo

the dog got at the meat.
 the rice is full of ants.
 my clothes were ruined by white ants.
 the cat is eating the bread.
 the rice has been devastated by stink-
 bugs.
 the rice is full of rice weevils.
 my skin is irritated by chicken ticks.
 the tree is struck by lightning.

4. To form verbs which indicate that the subject in question has the quality of what the stem implies. In this case the first open syllable of the stem is reduplicated. Examples:

babadoén daytá lúpot
guguyóden ti nuánḡna

aadigién toy káyo
sasapatósen di lálát
gagabúten

dadanúgen

arámid a dinederrép
sinasaririt
iniúlóko daytá súrat
kinakararuá
ti ima a linalaság
binabái daytá

that cloth is good for coats.
 his carabao is good for drawing pur-
 poses.
 this timber is good for posts.
 that leather is good for shoes.
 yard grass, *Eleusine indica* (literally,
 easily grubbed up, or: which has
 to be grubbed up).
 a variety of banana (from *dánug*:
 cuffing).
 an act of concupiscence.
 it is full of wit.
 that letter is written in Iloko.
 coming from the soul.
 the arm of flesh.
 that one is like a female.

11. THE SUFFIX AN

I. Form of the present: the suffix *an*. Form of the past: the infix *in* and the suffix *an*.

II. This suffix is added to cardinal numbers and to the interrogative *manó*, to ask or indicate how many of a certain class one obtains. It is of very little use. Examples:

manoánka
limaának a taróḡ
ininnemán

how many do you get?
 I get five eggplants.
 he got six.

NOTE 10. This suffix has sometimes the same meaning as the adjectival suffix *en*, under II, 4. Example:

arámid ḡga inuubingán

a childish act.

12. COMBINATIONS WITH *TARI*, AND THE LIKE

I. These combinations have no special form for the past.

II. The prefixes *tari*, *tagi*, and *ari* or *arin* may be combined with the suffixes *an* and *en*, to indicate that the subject is very near or on the point of undergoing what the stem implies. Examples:

taribaátanak kenká
tarianakán ni bakétko
tagiloomán tí sabá
ar-aripatayádnak
ar-aribetbetának
ar-arimadiánka
arinbabaátanka láeñg kaniák
ar-arinpatayán
arinturógen
arintutudoén

I am going to whip you.
 my wife is near childbirth.
 the bananas are nearly ripe.
 I am at the point of death.
 I was just going to strike.
 you were going to refuse.
 you are always ready to whip me.
 he is at the point of death.
 he seems to be asleep.
 it is about to rain.

13. FREQUENTATIVE PREFIXES

I. These prefixes have no special form for the past.

II. The most important prefixes of the adjectival voice have a special form of frequentative which indicates a repetition, a successive performance, or an intensification of the action implied by the ordinary form of the verb.

When the simple prefix allows this frequentative form, so do also generally the complex prefixes derived from that simple prefix; so, for example, if the simple prefix *ag*, which allows this frequentative form (*manag*), is combined with other prefixes into *agin*, *agkara*, for example, the latter also allow the frequentative form of *ag* (*managin*, *managkara*, and others¹²).

The frequentative form derived from:

1. *Ag* is *manag*. Examples:

managsaludsúd ni Pedro
mānagsarítaka
managsaóda
managinúm ni Cristóbal
managbarték
dagiti managdáit
dagiti managatép
managsángit dagitoy ñga ubbíng
managkatáwakayo la únay
managisem ni António

Peter always asks questions.
 you are quite a talker.
 they speak very much.
 Christopher is a drinker.
 he is a drunkard.
 the seamstresses.
 the roofers.
 these children always weep.
 you laugh to excess.
 Anthony always smiles.

¹² Notes on Iloko. *Anthropos* 23 (1928) 1037, 1038.

managságad ti anákko

managkinṅkinṅda
managulés ni daydiáy
managpáyong da Artúro

managbayábasda ṅga agkabsát

managsakit ni íkitko
managgurígurkami
managuyék ni Simón
managánuska a táo
managkastáta
*managpakínákemda iti saán a rum-
béṅ*
managinnápalda
managsusiksúsik da Juán

managtinnuloṅgtulóṅda
managsinanmadí ni gayyémko

managsitāṅgadhayo
managtagibunéṅ ni áma
managtagiláko ni Catalina
siká ti managinpipilay

managintutuléṅ dagiti gdálanna

managin-iisú daytá babái

2. Maka is mannaka. Examples:

mannakabalín ámin ti Diós
*mannakabírok ni ina iti mapúkaw-
ko*
mannakainúm daytá báka
mannakatúrog ti asáwak
mannakatipéd

3. Maki is mannaki. Examples:

mannakirinṅgórka
mannakiápa daytá ubtṅ
mannakisugálda
mannakimisa ni ulitégko
mannakidáwatda iti inumén
mannakisaludsúdda
mannakitabákoda
mannakikaidáda kenkuána
mannakisinnúratda kaniák

mannakiammoammó
mannakidumámagda
mannakipagdinnà kadakuáda

my daughter has always the broom
in hand.

they always play hopscotch.
that one always wears a blanket.
Arthur and his companion always
carry an umbrella.

she and her sister always gather
guavas.

my aunt is always ill.

we always have fever.

Simon always coughs.

you are a very patient man.

let us always act that way.

they always meditate what should not
be.

they always envy each other.

John and his companions always dis-
pute.

they always help one another.

my friend always acts as if he re-
fuses.

you always look up.

my father always carries a cutlass.

Catherine is always selling things.

you are the one who always simulates
lameness.

his students always simulate deaf-
ness.

that woman is very presumptuous.

God is almighty.

my mother always finds what I lose.

that cow always wants to drink.

my wife is always sleepy.

it is always in the way.

you are always quarreling.

that child always altercates.

they are gamblers.

my uncle always goes to Mass.

they always ask for water.

they always ask questions.

they always ask for tobacco.

they always lie down with him.

they always write to me and vice
versa.

he always makes acquaintances.

they always want information.

he also is always near them.

4. *Mañg* is *manañg*. Examples:

<i>manañginanamakami a patináyon</i>	we are always hopeful.
<i>manañgrikená</i>	she is tender, delicate.
<i>ti mammadlés</i>	the prophet.
<i>dagiti mammúyat</i>	the watchers.
<i>dagiti mammáti</i>	the faithful.
<i>mammáut ni áma kaniák</i>	my father always whips me.
<i>manamátit iti kampána</i>	he always rings the bell.
<i>manníratda</i>	they are writers.
<i>mananaóka</i>	you speak very much.
<i>mananákaw dagitá</i>	those ones are thieves.
<i>mananáitkayo</i>	you are seamstresses.
<i>dagiti mañngálap</i>	the fishermen.
<i>mannañgán ni Ana</i>	Ann always eats.
<i>manañngáasida únay</i>	they are very merciful.
<i>isú ti mañngágas</i>	he is the doctor.
<i>mañngáanúp ni asáwak</i>	my husband is a hunter.

14. SUBSTANTIVES INCLUDING VERBAL NOTIONS

I. Instead of using a preposition or some other construction to indicate: the instrument with which, the place where, the reason why, the person in whose behalf, the manner how, and the time when something is done, the Iloko has a series of prefixes and suffixes which add the afore-mentioned meaning of instrument, place, and so on, to the stem implying the action.

A. So, instead of saying: "She sews with a needle," which may be translated literally into: *agdáit iti dágum* the Iloko say ordinarily and more correctly: *pagdáitna ti dágum*: a needle is "the instrument with which she sews" (all in one word used as a predicate).

NOTE 11. This latter construction is ordinarily the more correct.

B. a. Instead of saying: "I sit on this stone," which may be translated literally into: *agtugáwak itóy bató*, the Iloko often say: *pagtugawák toy bató*: this stone is "the place where I sit."

b. Instead of saying: "Why does he weep?" which may be translated literally into: *ápay ñga agsángit*, the Iloko often say: *aniá ti pagsańgítanna*: "what is the reason why he weeps?"

c. Instead of saying: "He writes to me," which may be translated literally into: *agsúrat kaniák*, the Iloko may say: *pagsurátannak*: I am "the one to whom he writes."

NOTE 12. As may be seen by the above explanations, this construction is not always obligatory, and in some cases it is even preferable not to use it, because the meaning would not be clear; for example: *pagsańgítanna ti baláyna* may mean: he weeps in his house, and: he weeps on account of his house; consequently, it would be better to say: *agsańgít idiáy baláyna*, and: *agsańgít gapó iti baláyna*, respectively.

C. a. Instead of saying: "How does he write?" the Iloko say: *kasanó ti panagsúratna*: "how is his writing?"

b. Instead of saying: "When does he write?" the Iloko say: *kaanó ti panagsúratna*: "when is his writing?"

NOTE 13. This construction is very often obligatory.

II. These combinations are allowed with the most important prefixes of the adjectival voice. When the simple prefix allows them, so do also generally the complex prefixes derived from that simple prefix; so, for example: if the simple prefix *ag*, which allows these combinations (*pag*, *panag*, and others), is combined with other prefixes into *agin*, *agkara*, and others, the latter also allow these combinations of *ag* (*pagin*, *pagkara*, and others, *panagin*, *panagkara*, and others).¹³

A. The prefixes that indicate the instrument with which something is done are formed by changing the first consonant of the original verbal prefix into *p*, or by adding a *p* to the original prefix if it begins with a vowel. The forms of the past are the same as those of the present, except that the infix *in* is inserted after the initial *p* of the forms of the present.

The instrumental prefix derived from:

1. *Ag* is *pag* (past: *pinag*). Examples:

awán ti pagsúratko
pagpúnasmi ti bádomi
nabasa dagiti pagsukátko
daytá an-anák ti pagay-áyamyo
lapáyag a pagdeñgñég
aniá ti aláek a pagsílawko
dákes ti pagragádimi
awán ti pagkatámko
aniá ti pagságadyo iti kuárto
pinagkiñgkiñgda ti bató

aniá ti pagsapínko
pinagbádona ti ginátanġko idi
kalmán
daytáy ti pagkàlapmi
aniá ti pagkasdiáymo
awán ti pagginniyodda

I have no pen.
 we use our coat to wipe things.
 my clothes (to change) are wet.
 play with that doll.
 ears to hear.
 what light do I take?
 our saw is bad.
 I have no plane.
 with what do you sweep the room?
 they used a stone to play at hop-
 scotch.
 what pants do I wear?
 he put on the coat I bought yester-
 day.
 we fish with this.
 with what do you do it that way?
 they have nothing with which to pull
 one another.

NOTE 14. When the initial open syllable of the stem is reduplicated, the prefix *pag* very often indicates:

¹³ Notes on Iloko. *Anthropos* 23 (1928) 1037, 1038.

a. That something can be or has to be exchanged for what the stem implies. Examples:

<i>pagpapágayko daytáy</i>	I want to exchange this for rice.
<i>pagpipirákmi dagiti ilákomí</i>	we want money for our wares.

b. That something is used for what the stem implies as a substantive, and not for what it implies as a verb. Examples:

<i>pagtutúdo ti páyongko</i>	my umbrella is for the rain.
<i>pagiñit ta páyongmo</i>	your umbrella is for the sunshine.
<i>pagliling-ét toy lupot</i>	this cloth is for the perspiration.
<i>paglalammin ti ulésmi</i>	our blanket is for the cold.

c. That one desires what the stem implies. Examples:

<i>pagkikitak ti baláyna</i>	I long to see his house.
<i>pagdadáwatna daytá áso</i>	he longs to ask for that dog.
<i>pagdadánonmo ti Kabúgaw</i>	you long to reach Kabugaw.
<i>paggigibusmi daytáy bagás</i>	we want to finish this rice.

2. *Maka* is *paka* (past: *pinaka*). Example:

<i>pakaoná dagiti masakbáyan</i>	a presage of the future.
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3. *Maki* is *paki* (past: *pinaki*). Examples:

<i>asin ti pakikúyogmo</i>	who is your companion?
<i>pinakídlam daytá bagás</i>	did you also take that rice?
<i>ti pakintúod</i>	the question.

4. *Mañg* is *pañg* (past: *pinañg*). Examples:

<i>aniá ti pañgatépyo iti baláyyo</i>	with what do you roof your house?
<i>dika pañgiddép ti danúm</i>	do not use water to extinguish it.
<i>isú ti pinañgáwisko kenkuána</i>	that is how I allured him.
<i>bagás ti pañgaráyatda iti napañg-láw</i>	they help the poor with rice.
<i>aniá ti pañganákko iti buniág</i>	how can I be a godfather? (I have nothing.)
<i>wásay ti památolna</i>	he cuts off his head with an axe.
<i>dakkél unáy a pinamaneknékda</i>	a very great proof for them.
<i>awán ti pinamáyadna</i>	he had nothing to pay with.
<i>aláem ti panáit a puráw</i>	take white thread.
<i>ti pañgsaksi</i>	the testimony.
<i>pañgaásim apó</i>	please, Sir.
<i>maysá a pañgngárig</i>	a parable.

NOTE 15. The prefix *pañg* or *pañgi* joined to names of towns, provinces, and the like, means that something is of use to the people of that town, province, and so on.¹⁴ Examples:

<i>pañglawág daytáy a káyó</i>	this timber is good for Laoag.
<i>pañgagayán ti bagás</i>	the rice is good for Cagayan.
<i>pañgibañgár dagidiáy</i>	those are good for the Bangar people.

¹⁴ The Transitive Prefix *Mañg*. P. 9, Note. Unpublished.

B. The prefixes that indicate the place where, the reason why, and the person in whose behalf something is done, are formed in the same way as the instrumental prefix, but the suffix *an* is joined to the stem. The forms of the past are the same as those of the present, except that the initial *p* of the forms of the present is changed into *n*.

The combination derived from:

1. *Ag* is *pag . . . an* (past: *nag . . . an*). Examples:

adino ti naguráyanyo kenkuána
pagaládanda ti minuyoñgán
ditóy ti pagsubliánna
intúgotna ti pagsarmíngan
nadadáel ti pagsokogántayo
alám ti pagsiláwan
aniá ti nagladiñgítam
ti asók ti nagbaená
kas pagarigan
daytáy ti pagbabawiák
asin ti pagapálanna
siák ti nagkamáñgam
ti kaatiddáda ti naggiddiátanda

sadino ti pagariánna
ti pagimbagánna ta nanñgísit
daytáy ti pagdaksánna
aniá ti nagbayagányo
naglukaták ti kasañgsañgpét

idiáy baláymi ti nagtarayánna
pagsagádanyo ti kuártomí
idiáy ruár ti pagragadiányo
ditóy unég ti nagsintíkanda
aniá ti nagsakitán ti asáwana
ti baybáy ti pagkalápantayo
aniá ti nagkastáanda
paginnagáwanda ti bagás
aniá ti paginnapálan da Mercéd

idiáy baláymi ti nagsusiksusíkanda

pagdamandamáganda ta nabayág
a dida nagsasáarak

adino ti nagtinnuloñgtulónnganda
pagtagtagiammoán pay láeñg
sadino ti naginbulsekányo
nagintutulengán ti ubíng ta nasa-
dút

where did you wait for him?
 they fence the garden.
 he comes back here.
 he took the looking-glass with him.
 our mold is ruined.
 take the lamp.
 why were you sad?
 I sneezed on account of the smoke.
 for instance.
 this is why I feel sorry.
 whom does he envy?
 you took shelter with me.
 it was their length in which they
 differed.

where is his kingdom?
 it is a good thing that it is black.
 this is the worst of it.
 where were you so long?
 I opened the door for the one who
 just arrived.

he ran to our house.
 sweep our room.
 saw outside.
 they played at marbles inside here.
 how did his wife get ill?
 let us fish in the sea.
 why did they do that?
 they fight for the rice.
 why do Mercy and her companion
 envy each other?

they disputed with one another in
 our house.

they ask one another for news be-
 cause it is a long time since they
 met.

where did they help one another?
 it is still a doubtful matter.
 where did you simulate blindness?
 the boy simulated deafness because
 he is lazy.

<i>ti pagindidiammoánna ta umaripa-pá</i>	he simulates ignorance because he is shy.
<i>paginsasaanánmi ta kayátdaka a kitkitáen</i>	we simulate unwillingness because we want to see you.
<i>aniá ti pagkarasublián tay lúgan</i>	why does that cart come back continually.
<i>idiáy baláyyo ti pagkaraboóñgan ti piñgán</i>	the plate gets cracks all the time in your house.
<i>adino ti pagsanultípanna</i>	where does he blow a whistle with force?
<i>aniá ti pagbanetbetánda</i>	why do they strike with force?

2. *Maka* and *ma* is *paka . . . an* (past: *naka . . . an*). Examples:

<i>nakauliák ti agdán</i>	I climbed by the stairs.
<i>sadín ti pakaulógam</i>	where can you get down?
<i>aniá ti dikayo nakaruáran</i>	why did you not come out?
<i>ti sakitko ti diák pakabasáan</i>	I cannot read on account of my illness.
<i>ti karayán ti dítay pakañgán</i>	we cannot hear on account of the river.
<i>pakaboóñgan ti ólo daytd</i>	that is a matter for anxiety.
<i>aniá ti dína pakabalinán</i>	why cannot he do it?
<i>isú ti pakapanekneknán</i>	that is the proof.
<i>sadino ti nakatarayám</i>	whither were you able to run?
<i>nakasapulak dítoy</i>	I found it here.
<i>aniá ti nakaariekánda</i>	why did they sicken?
<i>ania ti pakaturóganda</i>	why do they become sleepy?
<i>aniá ti pakainumánna manén</i>	why does he want to drink again?
<i>daytáy lakáy ti nakabasólak</i>	I offended this old man.
<i>aniá ti dína pakapagsañgítan</i>	why can't he weep?
<i>aniá ti saánda a nakapagsaoán</i>	why couldn't they speak?
<i>sadino ti pakapagbaútam</i>	where can you whip him?

3. *Maki* is *paki . . . an* (past: *naki . . . an*). Examples:

<i>asin ti nakisaoám</i>	to whom did you speak?
<i>nakiasawáanna ni Juán</i>	she married John.
<i>aniá ti nakikuyóganyo kenkuána</i>	why did you accompany him?
<i>sadín ti pakiaipáanna ken ina</i>	where does she altercation with my mother?
<i>isúda ti nakitallaóñgak</i>	I joined them.
<i>aniá ti nakitulágam kenkuána</i>	why did you make a contract with him?
<i>asino ti pakianiányo</i>	with whom do you harvest?
<i>asino ti nakidawátam ití tabáko</i>	whom did you ask for tobacco?
<i>sadino ti pakisidaánda</i>	where do they ask for viands?
<i>isú ti pakikaidadánna</i>	he lies down with him.
<i>isú ti nakikabbalayák</i>	I lived with him in the same house.
<i>dítoy ti pakikatugawák ken kabsát-ko</i>	here I sit down with my brother.

<i>idiáy baláy ti nakibinniláñganda</i>	they counted it over with him in our
<i>kenkuána</i>	house.
<i>sadín ti pakibalanbalakádanda ken</i>	where do they give advice to John
<i>Juán</i>	and get it?
<i>pakipinnatenpategánmi kadakuáda</i>	we esteem them and we are esteemed
<i>ta agayanayátkami</i>	by them because we love each other.
<i>asín ti pakipagiddaám</i>	with whom do you lie down?
<i>sadíno ti nakipaginudoánna</i>	where did he warm himself with
	them?
<i>isú ti pakipaglak-ámanmi ití imbág</i>	that is how we shall share in the
	good.
<i>aniá ti nakipagsaritáanna</i>	why did he talk with them?

4. *Mañg* is *pañg* . . . *an* (past: *nañg* . . . *an*). Examples:

<i>sadín ti nañgaláam ití káyo</i>	where did you take the wood?
<i>adíno a baláy ti nañgaldáwanda</i>	in what house did they have lunch?
<i>pañgababaán ti náganna</i>	an abbreviation of his name.
<i>awán ti pañgasáanyo</i>	you have no hone.
<i>sadín ti nañgroótanda</i>	where did they gather grass?
<i>ti karayán ti nañgipónanmi</i>	we fished <i>ipon</i> in the river.
<i>aniá ti namatiám kenkuána</i>	why did you believe him?
<i>ditóy ti pamantáyam ití págay</i>	watch the rice here.
<i>awán ti diák nañgsurátan</i>	there is nobody to whom I did not
	write.
<i>ti básolna ti panusáak kenkuána</i>	I punish him for his faults.
<i>ditóy ti panaritáanmi ití kayátmi</i>	here we talk about what we like.
<i>aniá ti nañgabílanda kenká</i>	why did they beat you?
<i>aniá ti dika pañganán</i>	why don't you eat?
<i>aniá ti pañgapásanyo ditóy</i>	why do you buy cotton here?

NOTE 16. When the original verb is formed with the simple infix *um*, ordinarily the combinations of some other adjectival prefix have to be used. However, there is a form of very little use, which it will be well to put down here: sometimes to indicate the place where, the reason why, the person in whose behalf something is done, the Iloko eliminate the infix *um* entirely and simply join the suffix *an* to the stem; this construction occurs mostly in the past form, which is made by the further addition of the infix *in*. In a few cases the infix *um* remains, and then the past form takes the infix *imm* instead of *in*. Examples:

<i>aniá ti dika suñgbátan kaniák</i>	why don't you answer me?
<i>aniá ti sañgítanda</i>	why do they weep?
<i>aniá ti dída inulián</i>	why did they not come up?
<i>aniá ti saányo a tinugawán</i>	why did you not sit down?
<i>daytóy a baláy ti dinakkelánda</i>	they grew up in this house.
<i>adíno ti linabagáanna</i>	where did it become red?
<i>ti sakitko ti kinapúyak</i>	I became weak on account of my ill-
	ness.
<i>idiáy ti linukmegánmi</i>	we became fat there.
<i>daytóy ti inayák</i>	I came for this reason.
<i>mumumuláak daytóy</i>	I plant this.

ti sumpókan

aniá ti imminumánna ití gamút
isú ti balà y a rimmuáarak

the place where one enters the bushes.
why did he drink poison?
that is the house from where I
emerged.

C. The prefixes that indicate the manner how and the time when something is done have no special form for the past.

They are formed by changing:

1. Ag into *panag*. Examples:

intonanó ti panagsúratmo
kasanó ti panagdáitna
intóno bigát ti panagdígusko
idí kalmán ti panagiddámi
nalatíng ti panagsaóna
maipuón ití panagkarárag
nasayáat ti panagdániwna
nalabés ti panaggaráwyo
kaanó ti panagságadda
nakilló ti panagragádida
kaanó ti panagsugálda
napalálo ti panagsúnay dagiti ub-
bing.

itáy ti panagbádok
itattá pay láeñg ti panagsapín ti
anátko

kaanó ti panagkuritátayo
nalabés ti panagalimbásagko
nalabés ti panaguyékna
kastá la únay ti panagánus ni tá-
tanngmo

intonanó ti panagmáestrana
itáy malém ti panagkastána
idí panagkabannuágko

asidé g ti panagkabagída
ti panagkainnáy-áyo
nakabutbuténg ti panagginnúra da-
gitá
nakaay-ayát ti panagtulonngtúlonng-
yo
saán a rumbéng ti panaglallalakina

kitáem ti panagsiwaráda
ipáritmo ti panagtagilákona
kaanó ti panagintutúleñg ti anátko
nakakatkatáwa ti panaginsasángit-
yo

nasipútam ti panagkarasublína

when do you write?
how does she sew?
I shall take a bath to-morrow.
we lay down yesterday.
he talks fluently.
by prayer.
she sings beautifully.
you bustle too much.
when did they sweep it?
they saw crookedly.
when did they gamble?
the children play too much at spin-
ning tops.
I put on my coat just now.
my son wore pants for the first time.

when do we gather cuttles?
I have the nightmare awfully.
he coughs very much.
your father is so exceedingly patient.

when will she be a teacher?
he did so this afternoon.
when I was at the height of my
strength.
they are near relatives.
coaxing one another.
those ones hate one another terribly.

your helping one another is lovable.
it does not fit her to dress like a
man.

look how they scatter.
forbid him to sell things.
when did my son simulate deafness?
your pretended weeping is ridiculous.

did you notice its coming back all the
time?

deñggém ti panagsanaltípna
makaúma ti panagranetrét ta
rikép

hear him blow a whistle with force.
 the creaking of that door is tiresome.

kasanó ti panagbabbtógna
di sumardéng ti panagkanaltógda

how does he knock noisily?
 they do not stop crepitating.

2. The infix *um* into the prefix *i*, with reduplication of the first open syllable of the stem. Examples:

itá ti isasañgpétko
kaanó ti yuúlina
kasanó ti yuúlogmi
kaanó ti itatàona
nadarás ti idadakkélna
nagináyad ti itatakdeýon
intonanó ti ilalábasna
idí kalmán ti yaáyda
intóno rabú ti isusublími
kasanó ti iseserrék dagiti bábuy
itáy ti ibabáñgon ti anákko
napuótak ti iruruáryo

I came home now.
 when did he ascend?
 how do we descend?
 when did he become man?
 he grew quickly.
 how slowly you rise.
 when shall he pass?
 they came yesterday.
 we shall come back this evening.
 how did the pigs enter?
 my child arose just now.
 I noticed your coming out.

3. Maka and ma into pannaka. Examples:

kasanó ti pannakasañg-átmi
intonanó ti pannakaarámídmó
ití baláy
nalaús ti pannakabalínna
intóno bigát ti pannakalánonmi

how can we ascend?
 when will you be able to make the house?
 he has too much power.
 we shall be able to get there tomorrow.

napalálo ti pannakainúmkó
agduñgduñgsá gapó iti
pannakatúrogna
dakkél ti pannakabásolna kaniák
idí kalmán ti pannakalpásna
kaanó ti pannakaarámídmó
itáy ti pannakasápulna
kasanó ti pannakaálana
kaanó ti pannakapagkatáwana
kaanó ti dida pannakapagságad

I am very thirsty.
 he nods because he feels sleepy.
 he grievously offended me.
 it was finished yesterday.
 when was it made?
 it was needed just now.
 how was it taken?
 when was he able to laugh?
 when could they not sweep it?

4. Maki into pannaki. Examples:

kaanó ti pannakisaóm kenkuána
intóno bigát ti pannakisaritak ken-
kuána
kasanó ti pannakikúyogko ken To-
más
naalás ti pannakiáñgawna kadagiti
balásang
idí pannakidáwatko kenká iti pirák
makaúma ti pannakimamáda kada-
kamí

when did you talk with him?
 tomorrow I shall talk with him.
 how can I accompany Thomas?
 it is a shame to see him play with the girls.
 when I asked you for money.
 it is tiresome how they ask betel nuts from us.

<i>narígat ti pannakigayyémayo kada-kuáda</i>	it is difficult for you to make friends with them.
<i>nakaay-ayát ti pannakiamána ken gayyémko</i>	it is lovable to see how he treats my friend as his father.
<i>kaanó ti pannakikatugáwyo kaniák</i>	when did you sit down with me?
<i>idí napán a tawén ti pannakikabba-láymi kadagitá</i>	last year we lived with those in the same house.
<i>dakkél ti pannakiinniliwmi</i>	we long to see each other very much.
<i>napaypaysó ti pannakipatenpatégko kadakuáda</i>	my esteem for them and vice versa is true.
<i>kaanó ti pannakipagkúyogtayo</i>	when did we go together?
<i>intonanó ti pannakipagtaráyana</i>	when shall he run with them?

5. *Mañg* into *panañg*. Examples:

<i>itáy it panañggátanǵna ití kabáyo</i>	he bought the horse just now.
<i>awán ti panañginanámamin</i>	we have no more hope.
<i>a las dos ti panañgaldáwmi</i>	we had lunch at two o'clock.
<i>kaanó ti panañgrabliyo</i>	when do you have supper?
<i>intóno bigát ti panañgipontayo</i>	tomorrow we shall fish <i>ipon</i> .
<i>kaanó ti panañgróotmi</i>	when do we gather grass?
<i>kaanó ti panamarsuána ití lúbong</i>	when did he create the world?
<i>narambák ti panamonpónna ken amána</i>	he buried his father solemnly.
<i>idí panamakádam kaniák</i>	when you took leave from me.
<i>ti panamuggóna kadagití sákada</i>	his washing their feet.
<i>naimbág ti panamagbagá</i>	advice is good.
<i>ti pammatégko kenká</i>	my esteem for you.
<i>kasano ti pannubbótina kadakayó</i>	how did he save you?
<i>kasano ti pannaráonko kadagitóy</i>	how must I feed these?
<i>ti pammáti</i>	the faith.
<i>ti pannaksi</i>	the testimony.
<i>kaanó ti panpañgánmi</i>	when do we eat?
<i>kastóy ti pañngeddénǵmo</i>	do you decide this way?

NOTE 17. In a good many localities the Iloko pronounce *panag*, *pannaka*, *pannaki*, and *panañg* in a different way: they change the first *a* into *i*, and pronounce: *pinag*, *pinnaka*, *pinnaki*, and *pinañg*, respectively. This may be the reason why some authors consider these last forms as those of a past tense; but this is entirely wrong, as these prefixes have no special form for the past, and the Iloko who pronounce *pinag* for *panag*, for example, use the same for both tenses. The correct forms *pinag*, and so on, are the past forms either of the instrumental prefixes *pag*, and so on, which have been explained under II, A, or of the combinations *pag . . . en*, and others, which will be studied later. (Verbs implying order or permission, II, B.)

III. Verbal substantives corresponding more or less to the English ones are formed in exactly the same way as the preceding forms in *panag*, and so on, with the simple addition of the suffix *an* to the stem. However, the form in *i*, derived from

the infix *um*, does not allow this combination. These verbal substantives have no special form for the past. Examples:

itá ti panagodónġan

now is the time to go to the town
(on a feast day, for example).

intóno panagsursúran

when they will go from house to house.

kaanó ti panagburásan ití otónġ

when is the time of gathering cow-peas?

itáy a búlan ti panagtínáan

this month is the time for dyeing.

aluádanyo ti panaggaíkan

take care in weeding.

ti panagdaítan

the sewing.

rumaġ-áy ti panagmuláan

agriculture progresses.

ti panagtalónan

working the rice fields.

intóno bigát ti panagsimpdán

tomorrow is the time of putting the last touch.

ti panagtaraknán

breeding.

no addá áġol isú ti

when cholera reigns many men die

pannakatayán dagití tattáo

(literally: it is the time of the death of men).

intóno bigát ti pannakibuyáan

tomorrow is the show.

naládaw ti panāġanán

the meals are late.

BOOKS

Books reviewed here have been selected from books received by the Philippine Journal of Science from time to time and acknowledged in this section.

REVIEWS

An Ecological Glossary. Compiled by J. Richard Carpenter. Norman, Oklahoma, University of Oklahoma press, 1938. 306 pp., appendix. Price, \$4.

This Glossary, in which definitions and concepts of ecological terms are stated in brief, clear, and concise language, is the most exhaustive and complete work on ecology that has ever been put in print. It was prepared primarily to reconcile the divergent meanings of many ecological terms, as given in past ecological literature, so as to conform with the recommendations of the Committee on Nomenclature of the Ecological Society of America.

While the author makes no pretense at calling the book complete, it includes nearly all technical ecological terms encountered in an exhaustive search of all available literature on the subject. Some 3,000 definitions of different terms used in ecology with various formulæ are lucidly presented in this treatise. For convenience the ecological terms have been arranged alphabetically.

Of special interest to students of ecology is the discussion on the "development of ecological nomenclature" which is a résumé of the history of ecology. A complete list of literature and a historical bibliography of all pertinent papers from 1895 to 1935, inclusive, dealing with terms and concepts of ecology, are included.

The appendix includes tables and maps showing different life zones of America and tables of biotic areas and equivalent terms used by present-day ecologists, which further simplify what the author desires to bring out in the main part of the book.

This book is a valuable reference not only to students who are interested in ecological literature but also to researchers in all biological sciences.—H. S. S.

Foods America Gave to the World. By A. Hyatt Verrill. Appendices in Collaboration with Otis W. Barrett. Boston, L. C. Page & Co., c1937. 289 pp., illus. Price, \$3.

This book is a popular account of the known foods native or claimed to be native to the New World. The first twenty chapters are devoted to food plants, and the remaining two chapters to animal foods many of which are either little known or totally unknown in many parts of the world. Most of the important plants included are found and cultivated as major or minor crops in several countries, both in the East and in the West.

The first section includes a group of food plants from some species of the lowly weeds and ferns for their tender and nutritious shoots to the exalted family of the orchids from the pods or "beans" of which a vanilla scent for flavoring purposes can be extracted by highly complicated methods. Many of these plants grow in the wilderness of tropical America, and their edible products in most cases can be had for the picking. The author has taken time to trace briefly the origin and distribution of some of these plants outside of the Americas. He has especially noted down the rôle played by the American aborigines, the pre-Incas, the Incas, and the Aztecs, in the cultivation, improvement, and utilization of most of the better-known species. Each plant is adequately described and illustrated from the point of view of the layman. Many interesting and curious facts concerning them are recounted. The author has included helpful hints and precautions in the preparation of the edible products from otherwise unpalatable and poisonous plant materials.

In the last two chapters the author has enumerated several animals used as foods, a number of which are delicious to some people and far too odorous and repulsive to others. He deplors the reluctance and unwarranted prejudice of most people against many of these truly delicious foods. With increasing knowledge about them and the much improved storage and transportation facilities many of them are gradually being placed on the markets of the world.

A classified list of American foods, both plant and animal, with a brief note for each and in alphabetical arrangement under each class, is appended to the book. The book is very fascinating and enlightening throughout its pages. It should find a place in the public and school libraries.—Q. A. E.

Précis de Médecine Coloniale. By Ch. Joyeux and A. Sicé. Paris, Masson et Cie, 1937. 2d ed. 1,250 pp., illus. Price, 170 francs.

Following the former plan of grouping the exotic diseases according to the organs and systems involved, the second edition of the *Precis* is now available for practitioners interested in geographic medicine. An important innovation in this edition is the discussion of the epidemiology of infectious diseases immediately after the description of the causal agents.

The first part of the book describes the diseases of the digestive system and its adnexas. Starting with Engasgo's disease, common in the uncivilized interior parts of Brazil, which was recently studied and described by E. Vampré, the author gives a detailed and comprehensive presentation of the parasitic and diarrhæal diseases of the intestines, such as hymenolepis, ankylostomiasis, bilharziosis, distomatosis, amœbiasis, balantidiasis, giardiosis, cholera, and minor ailments. Bacillary and amœbic dysentery are described carefully and extensively. The exotic diseases of the liver and the other organs of the body are thoroughly dealt with.

The second part is devoted to the exotic febrile diseases. This general heading is divided into two subheadings, of which the first one comprises the exotic eruptive diseases, foremost among which are alastrim, smallpox, and the different form of typhus and exanthematous fevers, and the second includes the exotic icterogenous febrile diseases of which spirochætosis, icterohæmorrhagica, billious hæmoglobinuria fever, malaria, recurrent fever, dengue, oroya and undulant fever, plague, kalaazar, chagas disease, and tularæmia, form a part.

The authors stresses the biology of the causative parasites, laboratory diagnosis, and external factors influencing the diseases. The most effective and up-to-date methods of treatment of each disease are described.

The third part is devoted to the general exotic diseases, among which are beriberi and poisoning and intoxication by venomous animals and insects.

The index at the end increases the usefulness and value of the book. The book is illustrated and contains references. It compares favorably with other publications on the same subjects and should prove very useful to the practitioner in the Philippines.—J. A.

An Enumeration of Plants Collected in Sumatra by W. N. and C. M. Bangham. By Elmer Drew Merrill. Contributions from the Arnold Arboretum of Harvard University, VIII. Jamaica Plains, Massachusetts, The Arnold Arboretum of Harvard University, 1934. 178 pp., illus. Price, \$2.50.

To one interested in the Sumatran flora in particular, and in the Indo-Malayan in general, this paper is of great value. The enumeration is based on about 600 plants collected by Walter N. and Catherine M. Bangham in December, 1931, and in January and February, 1932, in northern Sumatra. The enumeration also included about 70 numbers of Orchidaceæ in the herbarium of Prof. Oakes Ames and 70 herbaceous plants presented by the Arnold Arboretum to the Gray Herbarium. The Bangham collection includes about 484 species, 105 of which are known only from Sumatra; 34 only from Java and Sumatra; 16 only from the Malay Peninsula and Sumatra; 6 only from Borneo and Sumatra; 10 only from the Malay Peninsula, Java and Sumatra; 110 only from Java, Borneo, and Sumatra; 9 only from the Malay Peninsula, Borneo, and Sumatra; and 15 only from the Malay Peninsula, Java, Borneo, and Sumatra. Thirteen additional species also have this last restricted range, except that they also extend to the Philippines. Nearly 217 of the 484 species are confined thus to the Sunda Islands and the Malay Peninsula, while most of the other species are much more widely distributed. In general the collections indicate an essential unity of the flora of the Sunda Islands (Java, Borneo, and Sumatra) and that of the Malay Peninsula. It is of interest to note that 25 of the species of the Bangham collection represent Asiatic types some of which are known outside of continental Asia only from Sumatra, and none of which are known from the Malay Peninsula, Borneo, or Java.

The collections represent 6 families of ferns, 2 families of gymnosperms, 11 families of the monocotyledons, and 80 families of dicotyledons. Thirty-eight are new species, the types being deposited in the herbarium of the Arnold Arboretum, with isotypes of most of them in the herbarium of the New York Botanical Garden.

Various changes in nomenclature have been found unavoidable by Doctor Merrill. One of these is the adoption of the generic name *Poikilospermum* Zippell (1864) for *Conocephalus* Blume (1825), not of Necker (1790) as validated by Dumortier (1822), in the family Moraceæ, under which various new combinations were made.

The enumeration includes 38 new species distributed as follows: Ericaceæ, 7; Orchidaceæ and Araliaceæ, 5 each; Anonaceæ, Myrcinaceæ, Primulaceæ, Gesneriaceæ, and Rubiaceæ, 2 each; and Moraceæ, Berberidaceæ, Saxifragaceæ, Rosaceæ, Meliaceæ, Euphorbiaceæ, Celastraceæ, Guttiferæ, Passifloraceæ, Apocynaceæ, and Labiataæ, 1 each. The species under the family Loranthaceæ were determined by Dr. B. H. Danser, of Groningen, Holland.

This contribution contains 14 plates. It is a valuable addition to the references in systematic botany.—J. B. J.

Sex Satisfaction and Happy Marriage. By the Reverend Alfred Henry Tyrer. Foreword by Robert L. Dickerson. New York, Emerson books, Inc., 1938. 160 pp., illus. Price, \$2.

This book is a splendid piece of work, complete in every detail yet very concise in giving accurate information regarding sexual knowledge essential to normal happy marriage. While the author makes no pretense to embody in the book everything concerning sexual relationship and marriage, he has succeeded in presenting an unusual amount of well correlated data in a lucid manner understandable to the layman. In short, this book is a work that is scientific, comprehensive, and serious, yet human, brief, and simple.

In the first part the author presents factual details about the anatomy and physiology of the human sex organs. How and where babies are formed, and the course of pregnancy with emphasis on prenatal care, most particularly the preventive importance of intercourse, are briefly and interestingly dealt with. Abortion and birth control with their dangers are also succinctly but unsparingly discussed. Then simply, without malice but thoroughly, he discusses the behavior aspects of the "love play" and the "first nights," especially on the preventive value of the rapture of the marriage bond. Finally he touched on "many things" to which sex and marriage are closely and dependably related.

Dealing with most intimate and at the same time the most sacred relationship of the married couple, this book gives a straightforward approach to the subject. Even those people who consider taboo all sex impulses, manifestations, and consummations, will find the book wholesome, unprejudicial, and very beneficial to the body, to the mind, and to the soul. The book is worth a place on everyone's bookshelf.—S. A. E.

The Cacao Industry of Trinidad. Some Economic Aspects. Series II, III, and IV. By C. Y. Shephard. Trinidad, Government printing office, 1936-37. 30+101 pp., illus.

General interest in the cacao industry of Trinidad and its economic aspects should increase as a result of the publication, in 1936 and 1937, of a series of three interesting articles; namely, a financial survey of estates during the seven years 1923-1930, an examination of the effects of soil type and age on yield, and recommendations for improving the efficiency of estates, all written by C. Y. Shephard, Carnegie Professor of Economics, Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture.

The author studied carefully the financial records of numerous cacao estates in all the principal cacao-growing districts in Trinidad and the results of the examination of fields of more important soil types with the object of ascertaining the principal factors responsible for the success and failure of these estates.

The author discusses the following subjects: Financial organization and management of estates, diversification of crops, housing, elimination of unprofitable cacao fields, selection of fields for treatment, advantages and disadvantages of replanting cacao fields, recognition and replacing of poor bearers, multiple-stemmed trees, types of planting material, care of supplies, method of rehabilitation, choice of fertilizers, subsequent treatment of fields, diseases and pests, and regeneration.

The most important factors that determine yield and profits in Trinidad cacao estates are unsuitable soil and the increasing age of the cacao trees. Under the conditions in which the estates were found, the outstanding suggestion made is to rehabilitate the cacao estates by a systematic and carefully designed plan with special attention to the elimination of unprofitable fields and concentration of effort on fields worthy of retention.

The author presents clearly and concisely to the students of the cacao industry various factors affecting the yield and profits and the means of improving the cacao estates. The most notable feature is the wealth of data and illustrations together with their unbiased interpretation.—P. A. D.

Sprinkle's Conversion Formulas. By Leland W. Sprinkle. Philadelphia, P. Blakiston's Sons & Co., Inc. 1938. 122 pp. Price, \$1.25.

The conversion formulas in this little book are simple operations for changing one unit into another. As a whole the book

consists of condensed tables suitable for the everyday needs of professionals, businessmen, and housewives. To eliminate the personal equation as much as possible, the author uses only one simple process—multiplication. In this manner even school children who understand the four fundamentals of arithmetic can use the book to good advantage.

A busy person will find the tables helpful. With the help of this reference book students of chemistry, physics, and engineering will save time in the solution of problems. The alphabetical arrangement of units contributes greatly to the ease with which desired information can be found in this book.

—M. P. R.

Atlas of Hematology. By Edwin E. Osgood and Clarice M. Ashworth. San Francisco, J. W. Stacey, Inc., c1937. 255 pp., frontis., illus. Price, \$10.

The profuse well-drawn illustrations in the text, showing vividly the cell structures, will never fail to make a lasting impression of the subject matter upon the mind of the reader. The systematic and concise way the structures and hematologic conditions are described, with close and frequent references to figures and tables, make the understanding and assimilation of hematologic facts quite simple. The text will be doubly useful to Filipino workers inasmuch as the illustrations are drawn from Wright-stained preparations, the stain more universally used in this country.

This atlas contains a classified list of references on hematology.—W. L.

The Principles of Cane Sugar Manufacture (together with a description of the machinery). By J. G. Davies. London, Norman Rodger, 1938. 144 pp., front., illus. Price, prepaid, 11s.

Although written for the nontechnical reader who possesses very little or no knowledge of cane-sugar manufacture, the book should have a place in the reference shelf of technical men as a guide in writing papers for laymen.

The author has endeavored to present the main branches of this great industry in a manner intelligible and interesting to the reader. This purpose was accomplished by the inclusion of flowsheets, graphic diagrams, and plates. The exposition is so clear and simple that the book will serve to help popularize science and industry.

The subjects discussed are: Juice extraction, steam generation, screening and clarification, subsidation (settling), filtration,

multiple-effect evaporation, crystallization, separation, processes for the manufacture of direct consumption sugars, fancy molasses, transport, the utilization of factory byproducts, and chemical control. The author mentioned new apparatus for sugar boiling but he failed to note the use of double helix crystallizers which are common in Philippine sugar centrals. To those looking for a general idea of the sugar industry, this book should be very helpful.—G. O. O.

The Soviet Food Industry; By A. I. Mikoyan. Moscow, Coöperative publishing society of foreign workers in the U. S. S. R., 1936. 77 pp. Price, 50 kopeks.

The solution of the food problem was regarded by the Soviet leaders as one of the most important tasks of National economic planning. While during the First Five Year Plan this task was left unsolved in favor of the more basic tasks of building the heavy industries and of solving the agrarian problem, with the Second Five Year Plan light industries and the food industries became all-important. Progress in these industries in comparison with both old Russia and foreign countries is reviewed in this book in terms of statistics.

Due mainly to the backward feudal character of her economy, tsarist Russia had no food industry except small-scale manufactures of vodka, sugar, and tobacco. By 1936, in less than 20 years after the Russian revolution, Soviet Russia has become the greatest producer of sugar in the world, having produced around 2.2 million tons, as compared to around 1.5 million tons by the United States exclusive of colonies. The Russian sugar refineries are linked with the sugar-beet fields by 2,300 kilometers of railway lines, and the Russians are now drying beet offal for cattle feed.

The Soviet Union holds second place in the fishing industry, second only to Japan and outstripping the United States, Great Britain, and Norway. She has 3,150 fishing vessels, with an aggregate of 230,000 H. P., and 26 cold storage plants. She has 55 fish canneries, with a total capacity of 252 million tins per year, and 28 plants producing fish oil and fish flour for cattle feed.

In the production of canned meat, fruits, vegetables, and milk, the Soviet Union has also improved tremendously, having produced in 1936 around 216 million tins of canned meat, 100 million tins of canned vegetables, 298 million tins of canned fruits, and 25.4 million tins of canned milk.

In animal industry rapid strides have also been made. Around 650,000 tons of meat, 170,000 tons of sausages, 285,000 tons of milk, and 193,000 tons of butter from 403 well-equipped mechanized butter factories, have been produced, although the production of cheese is still low.

As to vegetable oils, the Soviet Union's program for 1936 was around 475,000 tons, a low figure compared to the world's production. Production in this field is expected to improve after scientific improvements in the production of tea, citrus fruits, tobacco, essential oils, alcohol, rubber, and the like have been made. It is interesting to note that around 42,000 tons of synthetic rubber from alcohol and 5 million decaliters of 99.8 proof alcohol for airplanes and automobiles were produced in 1936, as factors in self-sufficiency.

Considering that all the basic means of production in the Soviet Union are socialized, these rapid strides not only in the basic industries but also in the light and food industries can mean only a higher standard of living for all people of that country.

This pamphlet summarizes much information of value to any one interested in the solution of the food problem.—V. G. L.

Floral Morphology; a New Outlook with Special Reference to the Interpretation of the Gynæceum. V. 1. By E. R. Saunders. Cambridge, W. Heffer & Sons, Ltd., 1937. 132 pp., illus. Price, 3s 6d.

The present volume is a résumé of a series of papers by the author on the subject of carpel morphology of angiosperms. It is intended primarily as a guide to the study of types for laboratory work. It contains an exposition of the general principles underlying the floral arrangement and data directly or indirectly relevant to his viewpoint, leaving the reader to look for other information from existing works on systematic botany. Thirty-nine families are considered. In each family the general characters of the flower and one or more 'illustrative' types are examined in detail.

Attention is mainly focused on the features and interrelations of floral members so as to give the reader a correct interpretation of the floral ground plan. A satisfactory solution of the problems of floral morphology, as given in this book, is not to be expected unless evidence of external appearance is supplemented by that of the internal, specially where union between floral members, whether of the same or different whorls usually peculiar to gynæceum, takes place. Particular families were

selected for consideration and examination from the standpoint of the problems presented by the particular types of construction, apart from systematic relationship, although so far as it could conveniently be done, groups of related families have been treated together. The book would have been more interesting to students of phylogeny if more extensive discussions on this subject had been added to the text.—J. B. J.

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- CABLE, DONALD E. 1937 Bibliography of rubber literature (excluding patents). New York, The Rubber age, 1938. 128 pp.
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- Rubber Research Institute of Malaya. Rubber-growing: elementary principles and practice. Compiled and prepared for publication by A. Moore from material supplied by members of the staff of the institute and in consultation with the Department of Agriculture, S. S. & F. M. S. Kuala Lumpur, F. M. S., Published by the Rubber research institute of Malaya and printed by Kyle, Palmer & co., Ltd., January 1938. 82 pp., illus. Price, 50 cents.

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